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ABSTRACT

Prepared for a UNESCO international congress on the planning and management of educational development, this document provides an overview of a number of educational policy and planning issues as they pertain to Africa. It consists of six main sections. Section 1 provides an overview of the contemporary political, socioeconomic situation in Africa. In section 2, an assessment of the educational situation (achievements, shortcomings, and future challenges) in the continent is made. In section 3, the national capacities for educational planning are examined with a view to identifying achievements and problems in the 1980s and future prospects and challenges for the 1990s. Some country representations also are given to complement the regional analysis. A similar approach in presented in section 4 for educational administration and management in the region. In section 5, emphasis is given to training capacities in educational planning, administration, and management in Africa reflecting upon past achievements and the new challenges of the 1990s. Finally, in section 6, some strategies and modalities for collaborative efforts in training and research in educational planning, administration, and management in Africa are examined in light of existing and future needs. A lengthy bibliography is included, as well as six annexes. A number of tables appear throughout the report. (DB)

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REGIONAL STUDY

REVIEW AND PROSPECTS OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT IN AFRICA

V. CHINAPAH

MEXICO
26-30 MARCH 1990

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EDUCATIONAL PLANNING, ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT IN AFRICA

A Regional Study of Achievements, Shortcomings and Future Challenges

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Working Document for the International Congress
"Planning and Management of Educational Development"
(Mexico, 26–30 March, 1990)

December, 1989

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING, ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT

A Regional Study of Achievements, Shortcomings and Future Challenges

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PREFACE

The present Working Document is prepared for Unesco for the International Congress *Planning and Management of Educational Development* (Mexico, 26-30 March, 1990). This document has been finalized after consultation at Unesco headquarters with staff from the Division of Educational Policy and Planning. It consists of six main sections. Section I provides an overview of the contemporary political, socio-economic situation in Africa. In Section II, an assessment of the educational situation (achievements, shortcomings and future challenges) in the continent is made. In Section III the national capacities for educational planning are examined with a view to identifying achievements and problems in the 1980s and future prospects and challenges for the 1990s. Some country-presentations are also given to complement the regional analysis. A similar approach is presented in Section IV for educational administration and management in the region. In Section V, emphasis is given to training capacities in educational planning, administration and management in Africa reflecting upon past achievements and the new challenges of the 1990s. Finally, in Section VI, some strategies and modalities for collaborative efforts in training and research in educational planning, administration and management in Africa are presented and examined in the light of existing and future needs.

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December 1989

In a continent characterized by tumult and change in the past twenty-five years, there has been one fascinating constant. This is the persistent and seemingly insatiable public demand for formal education (Court and Kinyanjui, 1988).

General Introduction

1. The contemporary socio-economic situation in Africa is one of general pessimism interspersed by sparks of optimism. Maybe what we really need is pessimism of the intellect, which implies recognition of past errors; economic, political as well as social. Recognition of mistakes in the past must include Africa's own mistakes as well as skepticism about the perfection of remedial and developmental measures suggested from outside the African sub-region. The continent also requires an optimism of the will, because she needs that to keep on trying. In the recent annual report of the World Bank (1989) this optimism and good-will are noted through the performance of a number of countries.

> *Although the varied performance of African countries makes it hard to isolate general trends, in aggregate, sub-Saharan Africa's GDP has grown at 2.6 per cent a year during 1985-1988, counteracting the general perception that Africa is a continent still in unrelenting decline.... By the end of fiscal 1989, the number of countries implementing policy reforms had increased to nearly thirty... A number of adjusting countries are undertaking, with donor support, programs to alleviate the social costs of adjustment and to reduce the incidence of poverty. In many other countries, studies under the social dimension of adjustment program are under way. In a number of regional initiatives started last year--food security, the environment, education, agricultural research and extension--progress has been made. In addition, the acceleration of population growth and the need for building indigenous capacity for policy formulation are receiving increased attention (The World Bank, 1989:105-107).*

2. However, many countries as well as some bilateral and multilateral agencies having programmes in the region strongly criticized the approach behind structural adjustments. Critics are mainly directed to such programmes being conceived as panaceas to all countries in the region irrespective of their national, political, social, and economic conditions. How would devaluation of the national currency, reduction of state spending on "unproductive consumption, removal of subsidies to essential commodities or services, abolition of minimum wage legislation, privatization of economic activities, opening up of the economy to international trade and finance, and the like be conducive to development of African nations and their people?" (Africa Development, Vol. X No 1/2, 1985). It is also argued that the immediate effects of the measures proposed for African countries for their austerity packages under structural adjustment programmes can lead to "bankruptcies, closures of factories, retrenchment of the labour force, etc" (Unesco, 1987:47).

SECTION I

Political, Social and Economic Situation in Africa

3. Never before has the African continent witnessed such a popular commitment to programmes of action for economic recovery and development, structural adjustments, and human resource development. However, as pointed out above, this commitment is far from a general consensus among these countries to adopt whatever "packages" proposed by others. This commitment is justified for various reasons which will be elaborated below.

The Political Setting

4. There have been increasingly concerted efforts in the 1980s among African leaders to redress their countries' social, and economic situation. At all international summits and conferences, the rallying cry for aggressive development strategies is heard. In the field of education, these summits and conferences have laid the foundation for new educational strategies in the region (Lagos Plan of Action, 1980; the Harare Conference of MINEDAF V, 1982; the OAU Heads of State Conference on Priority Programme for Africa's Recovery, 1985; the Khartoum Declaration, 1988; etc). One should also mention the commitment of the international community, including bilateral and multilateral agencies such as SIDA, UNESCO, UNDP, The World Bank, etc., towards programmes of economic recovery, human resources development planning, and indigenous development in the region. In the face of seemingly intractable problems for socio-economic development, the African population becomes emboldened to question the legitimacy of some of the socio-political systems that rule them. In many places, for example in Algeria, Nigeria, Zambia and Ghana, to name but a few, there is extensive debate with regard to genuine and popular participation in the Government through well-defined channels.

5. Democracy is therefore very much on the agenda in Africa today for a number of reasons:

a) the current crisis of the States are losing ground in as far as they do not guarantee social reproduction;
b) the re-composition of civilian segments because of semi-industrialization;
c) the various attempts at political liberalization by various political regimes in Africa, including socialist oriented ones, in search of new sources of legitimacy; and
d) the continued and growing passion among Third World intellectuals for 18th century socio-political theories.

The Socio-Economic Contexts

6. Socio-economic and structural imbalances in Africa's development are often approached in a polarized manner. There are those who viewed the current situation as an outcome of the international crisis with inflation all around the world, unfavorable terms of trade, etc.; while others see the crisis to be internal,

namely in the nature of state policies, internal class structure, or political instability (Unesco, 1987:36). The current threat of economic stagnation or decline would hit harder the already underprivileged or marginal groups in African societies allowing structural imbalances and inequalities between socio-economic, ethnic, cultural and regional groups to perpetuate. Here, one should reconsider the situation of girls and women, rural and urban poor, unschooled children and youth, illiterate adults, ethnic minorities, political refugees, those with handicaps, etc.

7. The social situation in the mid-1980s has deteriorated in many ways and has been marked by crisis in most areas of human development--health, nutrition, housing, education and employment. For example, by 1987-1988, poverty had become widespread in both the urban and rural areas of the region affecting between 50 and 75 per cent of the population. The problem of refugees has been acute for a number of years in the region. It is estimated that around 4 million Africans were identified as refugees in the continent in 1987, and there are as many as 10 million displaced persons. Many households are living under their minimal level of basic human needs.

8. Furthermore, an explosive deterioration of the quality of education marked by increasing problems of educational wastage (drop-outs, repeaters and failures) is noticed in a situation where by 1984 as much as 40 per cent of the school age population did not have any sort of exposure to formal or non-formal education (ECA, 1989). Adverse socio-economic development usually hits harder such groups in terms of access to, and provision of, basic human needs, e.g. food, shelter, clothing, education, health, nutrition and employment.

9. Some socio-economic indicators for countries in the region would show in the first instance the marked between-country variations (see Table 1 below). For example, the population annual growth rate between 1975-1983 was below 2 per cent for some countries (Cap Verde, Gabon, Mauritius and Seychelles, all of them with a population of not more than one million people in 1984), while it was above 4 per cent for countries such as Botswana, Cote D'Ivoire, Kenya and Libya. Furthermore, in some countries the percentage of rural population was as high as 80 per cent or more (14 countries), and as low as 50 per cent or less (3 countries). A similar trend was observed in terms of life expectancy, as high as 60 years and above for 8 countries and as low as 50 and below for 22 countries. Marked differences between countries in the region are notified also in terms of low GNP per capita in US dollars in 1985. There are seven countries in the region with GNP per capita above 1000 US dollars while as many as 19 countries had a GNP per capita below 300 US dollars. These marked differences can also be seen through real GNP growth rate per capita during the period 1965-1985 ranging from a minus in 13 countries to a plus of more than 3 per cent in 9 countries. This evidence of marked socio-economic variations between countries in the region confirms to a certain degree the danger of applying cookbook prescriptions of structural adjustment programmes suggested from outside the national contexts.

Table 1:

Africa: Some Basic Socio-Economic Indicators

	1984 Population (millions)	Population growth rate (1973-85) % p.a.	Rural Population %	Life Expectancy (years) 1985	GNP per. Cap. (US $: 1985)	Real GNP growth rate per capita 1965-1985(%)
1 Algeria	21.9	3.1	57	64	2,550	3.6
2 Angola	8.8	3.1	75	43	NA.	N.A.
3 Benin	4.0	2.9	65	49	260	0.2
4 Botswana	1.1	4.3	80	57	840	8.3
5 Burkina Faso	7.9	2.3	92	45	150	1.3
6 Burundi	4.7	2.3	98	48	230	1.9
7 Cameroon	10.2	3.2	58	55	810	3.6
8 Cape Verde	0.3	1.6	95	63	430	5.0
9 Central African Rep.	2.6	2.3	55	49	260	-0.2
10 Chad	5.0	2.1	73	45	NA.	-2.3
11 Congo, People's Rep.	1.9	3.1	60	58	1,110	3.8
12 Cote d'Ivoire	10.1	4.3	55	53	660	0.9
13 Egypt	48.5	2.6	54	61	610	3.1
14 Ethiopia	42.3	2.7	85	45	110	0.2
15 Gabon	1.0	1.5	59	51	3,670	1.5
16 Gambia	0.8	3.4	80	43	230	1.1
17 Ghana	12.7	2.7	68	53	380	-2.2
18 Guinea	6.2	2.0	78	40	320	0.8
19 Guinea-Bissau	0.9	3.7	73	39	180	-1.7
20 Kenya	20.4	4.0	80	54	290	1.9
21 Lesotho	1.5	2.4	83	54	470	6.5
22 Liberia	2.2	3.3	63	50	470	-1.4
23 Libya	3.8	4.0	40	60	7,170	-1.3
24 Madagascar	10.2	2.9	79	52	240	-1.9
25 Malawi	7.0	3.1	79	45	170	1.5
26 Mali	7.5	2.5	80	46	150	1.4
27 Mauritania	1.7	2.1	69	47	420	0.1
28 Mauritius	1.0	1.4	46	66	1,090	2.7
29 Morocco	21.9	2.4	56	59	560	2.2
30 Mozambique	13.8	2.6	81	47	160	-0.1
31 Niger	6.4	3.0	85	44	250	-2.1
32 Nigeria	99.7	2.8	70	50	800	2.2
33 Rwanda	6.0	3.3	95	48	280	1.8
34 Sao Tome and Principe	0.1	2.2	67	63	310	0.8
35 Senegal	6.6	2.8	64	47	370	0.6
36 Seychelles	0.07	1.1	63	70	2,400	3.4
37 Sierra Leone	3.7	2.1	75	40	350	1.1
38 Somalia	5.4	2.8	66	46	280	0.7
39 Sudan	21.9	2.9	79	48	300	1.2
40 Swaziland	0.8	3.5	74	54	650	2.7
41 Tanzania	22.2	3.4	86	52	290	0.6
42 Togo	3.0	2.8	77	51	230	0.3
43 Tunisia	7.1	2.4	46	63	1,190	4.0
44 Uganda	14.7	3.2	93	49	230	2.6
45 Zambia	6.7	3.2	52	52	390	-1.8
46 Zaire	30.6	3.0	61	51	170	2.1
47 Zimbabwe	8.4	3.2	73	57	680	1.6

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Present Situation and Future Prospects

10. The difficult economic situation has in the recent past been exacerbated by renewed drought, flooding of rivers, civil strife and regional conflicts in countries like Ethiopia, Sudan, Mozambique and Angola. These problems have created precarious food situations, disrupted transport routes, misplaced persons and millions of refugees, both economic and political. Some observers believe that the root cause of the worsening African refugee problem remains civil strife and socio-political conflicts originating from attempts at unfair ethnic domination, religious intolerance, dictatorship, political coercion and the destabilization policies of apartheid in Southern Africa.

11. Serious economic dissatisfaction originates from rapid inflation, distribution and structural imbalances, wage policy problems, harsh staple food price adjustments and marked reduction in people's standard of living. The above socio-economic problems are further aggravated by terrible housing conditions of low income earners, poor nutrition, poor resistance to diseases, the looming menace of AIDS and serious drug abuse problems. Interesting gains, which were made in the education sector in the 1960s and 1970s are being reversed and employment as well as employment services have deteriorated both in terms of quality and quantity. Brain drain and labor flight are on the increase in the region.

12. Provincial data from the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) show that over-all economic output in developing Africa grew by 2.3 per cent in 1988 as compared to 0.7 per cent in 1977 (Table 2). The slight improvement was partly the result of favorable rains and a good agricultural year, and partly the impact of certain scattered economic reform measures. The overall economic picture, however, remains gloomy, and the human costs of most structural adjustment programmes are extremely high and give much cause for concern both internally and externally.

13. The 2.3 per cent growth in GDP as shown in Table 2 below in 1988 was not sufficient to pull the African region out of the current economic crisis. Per capita GDP growth rates (-0.7 per cent in 1988) have been negative throughout this decade and inflationary pressures have intensified. The rate of increase in the weighted regional consumer price index has risen sharply, by 12.5 per cent in 1986, 15.7 per cent in 1987 and 21.3 per cent in 1988.

14. Several factors, both from the demand and the supply sides contributed to sharp price increases. Supply side factors include uneven growth of output and supply bottlenecks. Demand side factors include high bank credit and widening budget deficits in nominal terms. Other factors include devaluation of currencies and the removal of subsidies of a number of consumer products.

Table 2: Developing Africa Economic Indicators 1986-1988

	1986	1987	1988
Real Growth (%)	1.8	0.7	2.3
Domestic Demand Growth (%)	-1.1	-1.2	1.5
Inflation	12.5	15.7	21.3
Commodity Prices (100=1980)	51.5	62.2	54.2
Oil Price ($/bd)	14.42	18.38	14.88
External Debt ($ billion)	190.0	220.3	230.0
Current Account Balance ($ billion)	-7.2	-10.2	-10.8

Source: ECA, Economic Report on Africa, 1989:2

15. The current account of the international balance of payments remained deficit at an estimated 10.8 billion US dollars in 1988. Exports increased by only 2.6 per cent in value and 0.1 per cent in volume because of the fall of petroleum oil and beverage prices, especially cocoa and Robusta coffees. African oil exporting countries accounted for 62.3 per cent of the continent's GDP in 1987. The slump in oil prices therefore exerted a particularly severe impact on the economies of the region.

16. Manufacturing on the whole performed a little better in 1988 (than in 1987), partly as a result of slight improvements in the availability of agricultural raw materials for agro-based industries. Manufacturing remains inefficient, however, and lingering structural limitations and input deficiencies prevents the sector from becoming the complementary engine of growth that it should be.

17. Much of the recurrent budget deficits of the region often result from steep falls in the various tax receipts tied to domestic manufacturing activity. Given these circumstances it is difficult to see how stabilization of the government budget can be achieved in the absence of adequate rehabilitation and recovery in manufacturing.

18. Domestic demand grew by only 1.5 per cent in 1988 for the African region as a whole, after a fall of 1.2 per cent in 1987. There was a slight recovery in private consumption, which rose by 2 per cent, and in fixed capital formation, which increased by 1.8 per cent. The rise in private consumption, however, has not prevented a further fall on a per capita basis by a full percentage point (in private consumption). Since 1980, the compound rate of decline is about 20 per cent--a characteristic which is visible in many African countries.

19. The increase in fixed capital formation by 1.8 per cent in 1988 is a positive development after a fall of 5.3 per cent in 1987. An almost decade-long decline brought the rate of capital formation down from 21 per cent of the GDP in 1980 to only 15.6 per cent in 1988. The net result is non-renewal of capital stock, as evidenced for example in decaying public buildings and deteriorating transport systems. The modest rise in capital formation was not experienced by all the countries of the continent. The Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Nigeria, Cameroon, Congo and Gabon (all oil exporting countries) have been compelled to cut back considerably on many large investment projects.

20. The growth in output has varied widely among countries. The frequency distribution of countries according to their GDP growth rates is shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Frequency Distribution of African Countries According to the Growth Rate of GDP, 1985-1988 (In Percentage)

Growth	1985	1986	1987	1988
Negative	10	13	14	6
0-3	13	12	15	25
3-6	16	20	16	15
6-8	3	3	4	3
Above 8	8	2	1	1

Source: ECA, Economic Report on Africa, 1989:6

21. The number of countries experiencing negative or below 3 per cent growth rate have, in fact, increased from 29 in 1987 to 31 in 1988. Botswana and Mauritius have been recording exceptionally high growth results for specific reasons; Botswana because of its booming diamond industry, and Mauritius because of its rapid industrialization.

22. In the agricultural sector, the sub-regional differences are important to note (Table 4 below). The somewhat favorable outputs from 1988 resulted from good weather in terms of adequate rains at the right time, and the supply response of the farming population to recently introduced cultivation incentives, for example higher producer prices. The agriculture of the region is still highly vulnerable, as a result of being rain- or weather-cycle dependent. Locust infestations, for example, remain a menace. The food supply situation, particularly in Angola, Mozambique, Sudan and Ethiopia remains still precarious. FAO estimates that food aid requirements will continue to be as high at 1.8 million tons in 1989 (FAO Annual Report, 1988).

Table 4: Growth Rates of Agricultural Production by Sub-regions, 1986-1988

Subregion	1986	1987	1988
North Africa	4.08	0.65	4.69
West Africa	6.46	-3.50	1.98
Central Africa	5.51	-2.75	3.99
Great Lakes	-0.06	-0.59	1.78
Eastern and Southern Africa	4.00	-0.84	5.34
Developing Africa	4.54	-1.21	3.81

Source: Data compiled from FAO production index numbers (1979-81 = 100) in computer print-outs (Rome, November, 1988).

23. The production of traditional industrial agricultural crops like cocoa and coffee has increased. However, as most times in the past, good crops have coincided with lower prices on the world market. Africa will produce 55.3 per cent of the world's cocoa in the 1988-1989 period, but as regards coffee, an international coffee agreement (signed in 1988) favored Arabica coffees instead of Robusta coffees, which is what most African growers produce.

24. The African region still depends on imports for its meat consumption, despite the fact that the Sahel and many areas on the Atlantic coast have a high potential as an indigenous supply of meat. There is acute competition from such traditional meat exporters as the EEC countries and Argentina, who push heavily subsidized meat exports into Africa.

25. Fuelwood and charcoal are the main energy sources for the majority of the African population. Deforestation, which threatens the fertility of the land through soil erosion, continues at an alarming pace. Afforestation and re-afforestation are urgently required. During the 1987-1988 period only 150,000 hectares of forest were planted. FAO shows that the tropical forests of Africa are being depleted at an average 1.3 million hectares per year, while the depletion rate reaches 2.5 million hectares a year in the savannah woodlands.

26. Policy emphasis all over the region shows that the small-scale agricultural producer is re-emerging at the center of attention and assistance. In spite of this, agricultural productivity is still low, and Africa's green revolution still remains an illusion. World trade rose by 8.5 per cent in 1988, as industrial economies experienced one of their longest recovery periods on record. African trade, however, did not share in the boom. Exports increased only

by 2.6 per cent over the 1987 level, to 54.9 US dollars in 1988. Over the same period, however, imports increased by 8.2 per cent, primarily as a result of import price increases, since in volume terms, imports rose only by 1.2 per cent. Since 1980 African trade has been running deficit and the cumulative effects of that situation now (in 1989) translates into a loss of export earnings at an annual rate of 5.0 per cent. In the ECA report (1989:18) an analysis of Africa's major mineral prices over the period 1984-1988 was made. One important reason for the disappointing performance in world trade has been the fall in the export earnings of oil, which accounts for at least 60 per cent of the total exports of the region. In addition to oil, export prices for natural gas, cobalt, bauxite, manganese, phosphate and iron ore have either been stagnant or falling over the same period.

27. The gloomy economic situation of Africa over the past years has also led to a worsened external debt position, which in 1988 stood at 230 billion US dollars. The volume of debt rose by 10 billion US dollars in 1988 alone. New loans (leading to actual new debt) is only increasing marginally. The burdensome increases essentially reflect valuation effects associated with decline in the USA dollar, the accumulation of arrears, and the capitalization of interest rates.

Some Views on Structural Adjustment Programmes and their Implications for Educational Development in the Region

28. Persistently poor economic performance over the years, heavy external debt, deficiencies in administration, planning and implementation have, among other things, compelled most African countries to adopt stabilization and structural adjustment programmes. The broad aim is to restore macro-economic equilibrium. These stabilization programmes are, to say the least, stringent, and their long-term efficacy have been questioned by some experts:

> *The limited objectives and short-term perspectives of these programmes are sometimes viewed by African countries and others, as being at variance with the objectives of more balanced long-term development. Their human and social costs have often been seen as out of proportion with their real or intended benefits. The most vulnerable population groups, in particular women, youths, the disabled and the aged, have been severely and adversely affected by withdrawals of subsidies...wage increase limitations...and retrenchment... (ECA Secretary General's Report, 1989:ii).*

29. The tendency to apply general rules in assessing and in discussing African development problems has been widely criticized by African policy-makers and scholars. It is argued that African developmental problems whether it is education, agriculture, communication, industrialization, and so on, can better be examined if fair participation is ensured between Africans themselves and outside experts. Such a lacuna has been maintained in the initiation, planning and implementation of the structural adjustment programmes proposed for the continent (Mutumbuka, 1989:45). In his reactions to a ready-made package for structural adjustment programmes in education as proposed in the World Bank Policy Study

in Sub-Saharan Africa (1988), Mutumbuka (1989:46) pointed out problems that may arise from such a standard package:

> *(I)f you are sitting here in the SADCC region in the case of Zimbabwe and the case of Botswana, Swaziland, Lesotho, up to a point Malawi, you get the impression that the World Bank is damning African education. But the truth of the matter is, if you look at other countries, if you look at Somalia, if you look at what has happened in Francophone African countries, you look at Niger, at Mali, there has been a crisis and definitely there has been not a stagnation but a decrease in enrolment figures. Why? Simply because of the economic misfortunes in the African continent. African economies are agricultural. There has been a devastating drought in the Sahel. There has been world recession which has affected Africa's primary commodity production. So if you look at a situation where there is economic stagnation, what are the first sectors that are going to suffer? It is the social sectors: it is your education, it is your health.*

30. The World Bank, however, argues somewhat differently, as shown earlier, with the conviction that the overall results of economic adjustment programmes outweigh the costs, and insists that there are medium and long-term benefits. It admits that there are human hardships involved, but maintains that efforts are being made to mitigate their effects:

> *While the costs of not adjusting are heavy, the hardships that groups adversely affected by adjustment undergo are very real. Efforts therefore have increased to mitigate these costs for the most vulnerable by implementing compensatory programs, and in the medium and long-term by fostering greater participation of vulnerable groups of people in the process of economic growth (World Bank Annual Report, 1988:88).*

31. Coming back to the field on education, Wright (1989:80-90) provided an extensive analysis of the World Bank Policy Study in Sub-Saharan Africa (1988) starting with the argument that the study has several shortcomings in terms of: a) controversial interpretation of available data; (b) a hint of idealism and naivety in some suggestions and recommendations; c) an unwarranted fudging of issues related to the wider implications and implementation strategies of some policy suggestions; d) a rather restrictive policy framework imbued with pessimistic caution; and e) insensitivity to the crisis-induced potential for initiative and creativity which always lurks within situations of socio-economic decline. He further warns for the cost-strategies and cost-measures proposed in the structural adjustment programmes in education which he considers to be purely dictated by monetarist economic theories.

> *Thus the Bank mentions strategies for protecting disadvantaged groups from the worst effects of its recommended cost-sharing measures in education, but fails to address the issue of how to prevent such laudable intentions from being thwarted by the manipulations of powerful interest groups. Available evidence indicates that, in some African countries at least, structural adjustment measures recommended by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) are having a devastating impact on already disadvantaged socio-economic groups (Longhurst, Kamara, Mensurah, 1987). Meanwhile those who hold socio-economic power are successfully circumventing such effects, often exploiting and capitalising on the commodity scarcities and price escalations resulting from these measures. The Bank can rest assured that, ipso facto, the worst effects of its cost-sharing measures in education will somehow be passed on the weakest socio-economic groups, thereby reversing hard-won gains in the democratization of educational opportunities.*
>
> *Wright (1989:90).*

32. Similar views were expressed through the analysis carried out in Guinea-Bissau (Rudebeck, 1989) showing how rural people have to pay a heavy social price for structural adjustment programmes; in Nigeria (Bangura, 1987) how the structural adjustment programmes raised serious questions on the extent to which government will continue to ignore the demands of labour and other popular forces; or in Zambia (Ncube, Sakala and Ndulo, 1987) on the perpetual short-term and long-term dependency on external assistance to realize the objectives set for structural adjustment programmes.

33. The views expressed above are pertinent to existing planning, administrative or managerial strategies and to those that are to be designed for educational development in the region in the 1990s and beyond.

SECTION II

An Overview of Education in Africa: Past, Present and Future

34. Around the time that most countries in Africa, especially sub-Saharan Africa, gained independence from colonial rule, the region lagged far behind the rest of the world on nearly every indicator of western-style educational development. Since the early 1960s, however, the nations of Africa have invested heavily in education at all levels. There has been a firm belief that without education, development could not occur. It has also been generally conceived that only an educated people, could command the skills necessary for sustainable economic growth, and for a better quality of life (see the Harare Declaration). The recent Unesco Report *Educational and Training Policies in sub-Saharan Africa* (1987) provides a comprehensive overview on the past and present achievements as well as shortcomings of educational development in Africa. Some of the major points are examined here.

35. The African achievements in the education sector have been quite impressive, both in absolute terms and in relation to other sectors or to other countries, in the period between 1960 and 1980. That is a tribute to all involved: African parents and leaders, missionaries, UN agencies and external donors. In the period after 1980, however, it has been increasingly difficult to mobilize resources for education, and a somewhat decreasing proportion of GNP has been allocated to education since 1980. If compared in an international perspective, the proportion of GNP destined for education in the region is rather low, especially in consideration of its young population. Statistics reveal that educational expenditures per pupil represents hardly a quarter of the world average. The economic and financial constraints since the early 1980s have had increasingly adverse effects on the quantitative as well as on the qualitative aspects of education and training in the region. However, very little research has been carried out in Africa region to assist policy-makers in redressing some of these problems while at the same time, poor capacities for educational planning, administration and management are manifested in most countries.

> *The conclusion drawn from the evaluation of the development of the education systems in the region is that their performance and efficiency are still very inadequate in relation to expenditure (even taking into account the relatively low level of expenditure involved), and that the limited quantitative expansion which has taken place in the last few years does not necessarily succeed in meeting the qualitative needs of communities and individuals. Structural imbalances are noted, between cycles and courses in the various levels and types of education and between the formal and non-formal education systems. Although efforts are being made to strengthen the bodies responsible for educational planning and administration, they are still insufficient and do not lead to significant progress in the reduction of costs, identification and rational allocation of resources, or routine management at local and school level. Full use is still not being made of material and human resources (Unesco, 1987:8).*

36. In many countries of the region, great efforts are now made in building or strengthening the national capacities for educational planning, administration and management which are regarded as the *sina qua non* of successful implementation of educational reforms, changes and innovations. The recent programme of action proposed by the Director-General (1990-1995) *Priority: Africa* (Unesco, 1989) lays the foundations for genuine actions in the educational field, namely in areas as educational content and relevance, environmental literacy, population education, education and health, education and productive work, functional and developmental literacy, computer education, distance education, and the improvement of higher education. There appears to be also a renewed commitment about education for all bringing into focus the interactive role between education and the other basic human needs. In other words, old problems are to be confronted with new challenges (Chinapah and Miron, 1990).

Population and Education

37. Reversals in education at all levels have occurred in an environment of unprecedented population growth, mounting fiscal deficits and often tenuous political and administrative institutions. Each of these factors has been detrimental to education, and the ensuing deterioration in educational services has made it more difficult to solve the economic and social problems of the region. The question of rapid population growth is crucial to the overall development of most countries in the region. The trends in total population by country, with projections up to the year 2000 are presented in Annex I. In absolute figures, the total population will grow from 342 million in 1980 to 648 million in the year 2000. With regard to education, UNESCO Statistical projections show that by the year 2000, the population of 6-11 year olds will have a particularly high growth rate, soaring to 113 million, from 57 million in 1980, and 80 million in 1990. The growth rate varies markedly between countries.

38. These figures imply that a massive effort will be required just to stay even, and additional resources will be necessary for financing recurrent costs. One of the biggest challenges with respect to secondary education is thus expansion and consolidation, since at present many African countries fail to keep access to education at pace with the growth of the population. The geographic distribution of the population also affects the location of school facilities. The population of the region is heavily concentrated in urban areas, and the rates of migration from rural to urban areas are high, which reinforces the problem of high costs for education units in areas with low density of population.

Primary Education

39. Meeting basic learning needs in the 1990s is at present a major commitment of most societies and global challenges for human development, and in particular, for those countries in the developing Third World. Here, access to, and provision of good quality and

effective primary or basic educational services occupy a central role in any national, regional or international developmental strategy for the 1990s. African primary or basic educational development is increasingly confronted with problems of enrolment stagnation or decline, quality erosion, ineffectiveness and rising costs. The primary educational systems in many countries in the region cannot absorb all school-age children for the minimum years of education required; instead they are producing too few primary school completers and a massive amount of undereducated primary school leavers. These are often associated with problems of structural and educational inequalities, educational wastage, curricular relevance, academic achievement, teaching-learning environments, supervision, and institutional leadership. These are few of the many challenges of the 1990s for African policy-makers, planners, administrators, managers, educators and parents.

40. The major indicators of the development of primary, secondary, and tertiary education in the region are shown in Annex II for the period 1960-1983. Additional data on changes in primary education during the period 1960-1983 for all countries in the region are given in Annex III. As emphasized earlier, there are marked between-country differences on all these indicators. For example, during the period 1975-1985, high positive primary education gross enrolment ratios of 20 percent and above were observed in countries like Botswana, Burundi, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Gambia, Nigeria, Tunisia and Zimbabwe. In the latter, it was as high as 68 percent. At the same time one can find negative ratios of 20 percent and above in countries like Mozambique and Somalia. However, some general trends can be reported here.

41. We can observe that quantitative expansion, particularly at the primary school level, was especially impressive between 1960 and 1983, when the number of students enrolled in African institutions at all levels quintupled to about 63 million students (World Bank Policy Study, 1988:166). Since about 1980, however, this enrolment trend has very clearly slowed down, and in the case of six countries it has even been reversed. In the most recent statistics, data available for certain countries have had to be supplemented by estimates, but there is evidence showing a marked decline in the increase for first-level enrolments in the sub-Saharan countries in the 1980-1985 period.

42. The substantial expansion of education in the period of 1960 to 1983 has, however, increased the participation of girls, who had previously had little or no access to formal education. Table 6 shows, among other things, by country, the changes in first-level enrolments for girls between 1960 and 1983. The number of girls enrolled expressed as a percentage of the total first-level enrolments was 34 per cent in 1960, whereas in 1983, it had risen to 44 per cent. Practically every country recorded increases in girls' enrolments for that period (except Botswana and Lesotho, the two countries with the highest percentage of girls in 1960, where it dropped by 4 percentage points).

43. However, even if the difference between male and female school enrolments have been almost eliminated in the region as a whole at

the primary level, there remains evidence of a difference at higher levels of education, in particular at the tertiary level. Besides, the rate of adult illiteracy is more pronounced among the female population is striking in light of the close connection between child literacy and adult literacy.

Secondary Education

44. Secondary education is often expensive in Africa in both absolute and relative terms. The per student expenditure on education in Africa continues to be low however, and expanding enrolments combined with basically unchanged budgets have made the financing of the recurrent costs of education increasingly difficult. Public recurrent expenditure per secondary school student ranged from less than 50 US dollars in Ghana and Guinea-Bissau, to more than 700 US dollars in Cote d'Ivoire and Tanzania. The median for the African countries was 223 US dollars in 1983 (World Bank Policy Study, 1988). Contrasting per student expenditures across levels of education, the greatest discrepancy in the whole region is found between the cost per one primary school pupil and the cost per one university student. In other words, in the Sub-Saharan region as a whole, the cost for one secondary school student can be used to educate 4 primary school pupils while the cost for one university student can be used to educate 53 primary school pupils or 13 secondary school students.

45. Going back to Annex II, we can see that the enrolment in secondary schools increased in absolute terms from 793,000 in 1960 to about 11.1 million students in 1983. The overall annual growth of second and third-level enrolments have continued, but nevertheless it has slowed down considerably since 1980. At the secondary level the annual rate of increase is 9.5 per cent, which is a drop from 14.1 per cent during the period 1960-1980.

46. As to the quality of the secondary education, there are wide differences in the region. Some countries, for example Tanzania, have placed greater stress on the teaching of agriculture and vocational skills, while others, for want of adequate practical inputs, continue to emphasize general academic skills. The difference between male and female enrolment is more pronounced at this level than in primary education, as discussed above. The female enrolment is at present 34 per cent of the total enrolment in Africa, compared with 39 per cent in Asia, and 50 per cent in Latin America.

Technical and Vocational Education

47. The quality of statistics on inputs and outputs regarding technical and vocational education varies widely over the region. This is partly because of the following:

a) problems regarding data collection and dissemination;
b) problems of comparisons between schools in terms of levels; and
c) the great variety of delivery agents--including the state, private groups and companies, private profit-motivated individuals and some foreign donor agents.

48. One of the general problems encountered at this level of the education system is the problem of relevance of the curriculum for the local needs and for the practical, immediate needs of the labor-market. For example, the 1987 UNESCO report on education in the sub-Saharan region points out that there is an immediate need for a linking of education to the world of work. Both technical and university education remain highly theoretical and derailed from the needs of the labor market, and the requirements of the environment. The problem, however, is not least one of deciding when to make the transition from programs and subjects that have broad vocational relevance, to programs that will prepare individuals for specific jobs or areas of employment. This area, as other areas within the education system, is furthermore beset by the problems of inadequate funding and high enrolment demands in relation to the availability of education.

Higher Education

49. One of the characteristics of the present time is the immediate penetration of technological applications in day-to-day life, thereby making science and technology a guiding force of production. In so far as institutions of higher education devote a part of their activities to research, they help to strengthen this powerful factor of development in general, while at the same time contributing to the human resources factor, which is at one and the same time the means and the end of development (UNESCO, 1987a:81).

50. Higher education is very much involved in the strategy for the renewal of science and technology teaching, and so, higher education has a decisive responsibility in both research and training as well as in the efforts of making the ties to the labor market sectors concerned with the applications of science and technology more pronounced. Africa requires highly trained people and top quality research in order to be able to formulate the policies, plan the programs, and implement the projects that are essential to economic growth and development. In other words, the graduates of Africa's universities are the core of the national capacity for producing trained manpower, setting the standards, maintaining quality and adjusting the education system to changing circumstances. The problem of brain drain is a crucial problem in this context, to which Africa will have to direct particular attention.

51. University enrolments grew from 21.000 in 1960 to more than 430,000 in 1983. This is another educational sector where results have been quite impressive in absolute numbers. The contribution of higher education to the development of the region is, however, being threatened by at least four inter-related weaknesses. First, some of the universities are producing too many graduates within programs of sometimes questionable quality and relevance, and hence generate too little new knowledge that supports development efforts. Second, in some countries the quality of these outputs shows unmistakable signs of having deteriorated so much that the fundamental effectiveness of the degree-awarding institutions may be questioned. Third, the costs of higher education are disproportionately high,

judging from the priorities of other sectors which are competing for the scarce resources of the region. No obvious decline in expenditure is shown in this area, which is explained by traditionally high unit costs in comparison with low level education and by the relatively few students in this sector. Fourth, the pattern of financing higher education appears to be inequitable and economically inefficient. Concerning the foregoing diagnosis of weaknesses in higher education, policy suggestions and objectives for the region have included attempts to: (a) improve quality; (b) improve efficiency; (c) change the output mix, which implies smaller enrolments in certain fields of study and expansion in others, like mathematics and statistics, the natural science, medicine and health, nutrition, earth science, engineering, cost accountancy, and computer science, to name a few; and (d) where appropriate, to relieve the burden on public sources of financing by increasing the participation of beneficiaries and their families, if possible (The World Bank, Policy Study, 1988).

Adult Literacy

52. Literacy should be defined along a continuum recognizing the characteristics of individuals and their needs to develop themselves politically, morally, socially, culturally and economically in their rapidly changing environments. At a basic and minimal level of literacy, any individual should be able, with understanding, both read and write a short simple statement on his/her everyday life. Likewise, a functional literate person should be able to engage in all those activities in which literacy is required for effective functioning in his/her group or community, as well as it enables him/her to continue to use reading, writing, and calculation for his/her own advancement and the development of the community. The above definition means that functional literacy varies depending on the environment, the context, and the predominant ideology of a given society at a given time (Lind, 1988:11).

53. Adult literacy is closely related to primary school enrolment, and the deficiency of primary education in the sub-Saharan region up to 1950 has been largely conducive to an illiteracy ratio that is still higher than anywhere else. The latest average illiteracy rate reported for all of Africa (1987) was 52 per cent, in comparison to the average world illiteracy rate of 28 per cent. According to a recent estimate, it dropped from 63.9 per cent in 1980 to 56.7 per cent in 1985. The absolute number of illiterates continues to increase, however. An estimated 888 million people were illiterate in 1985, whereas for Africa as a whole the figure was 159 million of whom, 61 percent were females. The percentage varies considerably from one country to another, however, Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger and Somalia have illiteracy rates of above 80 per cent of the population, while Mauritius and Zambia, for example, have 17 and 24 per cent illiteracy respectively (UNESCO, 1987b).

54. The eradication of illiteracy does not banish deprivation overnight, but by eliminating one obstacle to development it will certainly be conducive to improved living and working conditions. Literacy teaching for young people and adults will, in other words,

continue to be essential. Among the strategies undertaken to this end are, for example, programs characterized by a dual approach, linking primary education with literacy education for young people and adults. This again emphasizes the close relation between primary schooling and later life literacy. Besides, integrated efforts of this kind had the additional concern of making the best use of human, material as well as financial resources.

55. In terms of mass state-sponsored literacy campaigns, Tanzania, Mozambique, Ethiopia, and to some extent Zimbabwe, stand out prominently in the region. Ethiopia enjoyed the highest mass literacy campaign efficiency rate between 1979 and 1983 with 9.5 million "graduates" among the 15.4 million participants who started in 1979.

Table 5: Literacy Campaign Efficiency: Some Comparisons

Country	Overall Internal Efficiency	Total Enrolment	Total Passed
Ethiopia (1979-1983)	62%	15,400,000	9,500,000
Mozambique(1978-1982)	33%	1,088,000	357,000
Tanzania (1971-1975)	27%	5,200,000	1,400,000
Zimbabwe (1983-1985)	9%	313,000	27,000

Source: Lind, 1988:171

56. An assessment of these literacy campaigns would indicate how much concerted efforts are still required. Along these lines, the following are to be considered:

- Literacy promotion must be practically linked to the daily activities of the adult participants.
- Tutors need training and financial support.
- Political and administrative supports are necessary, but "community will" is also essential.
- Materials for teaching must be well selected so as to be relevant for the needs of the participants.
- Post-literacy activities are as important as the main campaign itself, so as to avoid relapses into illiteracy. A main campaign that is unsystematic and unclear cannot, however, be counterbalanced by a massive post-literacy campaign. The various stages have to be integrated and interrelated in order to yield maximum benefit.

Looking Ahead: A Synoptic Educational View for Africa

57. Although it is nearly an impossible task to take stock of the achievements and shortcomings of educational development and to propose future educational actions for such heterogeneous, varied and complex environment as Africa, an attempt is made here to look ahead from a synoptic educational view considering back to the 1960s. To do so, an integrated strategy encompassing and inter-linking together some past achievements, interesting innovations, problem identification for the present and the future and alternative solutions is attempted (Table 6). The integrated strategy is self-explanatory, but still we find it important to elaborate on some areas where major educational bottlenecks are being observed in order to come up with some suggested alternative solutions.

58. ***School enrolments have stagnated since 1980***, and in some cases fallen below the levels reached in the 1970s in almost all the basic educational institutions of the region. This reflects the present economic situation in Africa. For example, children, especially girls, are kept out of schools because they are needed to contribute to the family income, not the least because of the recent droughts, which have forced many families to migrate. This poverty has also caused malnutrition and poor health, which *per se* reduces the number of educable children, and accounts for part of the lack of success at school. Besides, in many countries the fall in total family income has coincided with raised fees for schooling and related activities, which have been introduced because of the scarce resources available for the sector. Although basic education remains a requirement for at least reasonably successful participation in the labor market, the demand for schooling is expected to remain at a lower level than prior to 1980, as the immediate private gain by basic education is limited. This is due both to the recent economic stagnation and the increasing number of graduates, which have prompted a rise in demands for educational qualifications on the labor market.

59. ***The quality of education has declined at all levels.*** Among the explanations given for this are the low expenditure per student and of what is little spent is poorly allocated. The expenditure per student is especially low at the primary level, which is particularly disturbing because of its importance as a foundation for other levels of education and because of its close link to adult literacy. In addition, there is evidence to show that over the years, little progress has been made in improving the teaching-learning conditions, i.e. unavailability or shortage of textbooks, lack of curriculum relevance, and poor supervision and management leadership.

Table 6. An Integrated Strategy

Some Past Achievements	Interesting Innovations	Problem identification	Alternative Solutions
Primary Level: .Highest enrolment increases in the world in the 1960s and 1970s .Big increases in female enrolment in relative terms .Many rural villages gained	.Multi-grade classes .Crash teacher training programmes .Multiple uses of primary school physical facilities at village level	.Dropping enrolment ratios in the 1980s .Falling standards .Poorly trained and poorly motivated teachers .Sometimes problems concerning language policy	.Adjustment so as to contain unit costs .Adjustment towards diversification of sources of finance (Cost-Sharing) .Better teacher training and motivation .Better materials .Practical and environmentally oriented teaching
Secondary level: .Record high enrolment increases in the 1960s and 1970s .More girls in secondary school .Great expansions in extra-mural programs .Secondary schools moved closer to villages	.Interesting self-study and correspondence schools e.g. in Malawi .Other mixes of distance education	.High unit costs particularly for the state .Low cognitive achievements .Expansion unable to meet high demand .Little piratical skills imparted	.Unit cost reduction .Cost sharing .Teacher training and motivation .Relevant tools, laboratories, libraries and books .Improving on gains of self-study and distance education methods .Selective expansion .Restore quality
Technical and Vocational: .Record expansion in absolute student enrolment terms .Record increases in subject lines offered	.Some "education with work" experiments .Interesting blends in school ownership that is, public, local private, missionary, donor-agent assisted schools	.Instructions for theoretical .high unit costs .Poorly equipped workshops and laboratories .Derailed from labor market requirement .Extreme quality differences among schools	.Selective expansion .Cost sharing .Restore quality .Need for relevant teaching tools and workshops .Unit cost reduction .Practical work to be environmentally and labor-market geared
Universities: .Record expansions particularly in the 1970s and early 1980s .Increases in female enrolment especially in departments of health, nutrition, social sciences, law, natural sciences and business education	.Some interesting institutional blends e.g. Colleges of Technology, Agricultural Universities, Colleges of Mining .Attempts to broaden entry qualification rules e.g. mature student special entry quotas .Special package courses designed for specific governmental ministries	.Visited fall in standards in certain universities particularly the newly established universities .Financing is high and inefficient .Too many students in liberal arts subjects .Work, research and output not in tune with labor market .Proliferation of small institutions with enrolment under 3,000	.Beneficiaries and their families to pay more .Improve quality .Constrain output but encourage expansion in mathematics, natural sciences, agricultural, engineering, engineering and computers studies .Industry oriented research .Improve benefits for university staff
Adult Literacy Programme: .Launched practically in all countries .Emphasis on women and specific producer groups	.Project-tied literacy attempts .Vigorous literacy endeavour in Tanzania Ethiopia, Sudan, Mozambique deserve study	.How to keep up participant interests throughout .Too few project oriented schemes .Inadequate post literacy reading materials hence major relapses	.More project-tied schemes .Improve techniques and post-literacy materials .Post-literacy activities

60. ***School failure***, i.e. early and later drop-outs, frequent grade repeating, and poor academic standards is a problem that has been noted at all levels of education, and in particular at the primary level. This phenomenon does receive special attention in relation to its vast implications for the cost of education, which are also reverberated at subsequent stages of education. In terms of quantitative research the problem is quite well documented, and the statistical reports of the problem give cause for much concern, as is exemplified by Annex IV. As to a qualitative analysis of the causes, the area remains insufficiently investigated. However, the Harare Conference in 1982 pointed out social and economic factors, and the perceived scant relevance of education, as plausible determinants of the problem (UNESCO, 1987a:25). The case of Zimbabwe deserves to be mentioned here, as a gross primary enrolment ratio of over 100 percent is now reported, and with a low rate of repetition, Zimbabwe seems to have achieved the goal of universal primary education.

61. ***A low level of cognitive achievement*** has furthermore been recorded, although there are exceptions to this in some of the well-established secondary schools of the region where achievements are quite high. However, some caution is necessary in allowing the level of cognitive achievement, as evidenced by test scores, to be the *only* basis for drawing conclusions about the quality of education. Although the level of cognitive achievement is certainly an essential indicator of the pupils' future productivity--as it reflects one of the most important goals of education--quality is a multi-faceted measurement. Quality will also have to encompass such factors as the extent to which education manages to accommodate modern market-oriented skills with existing traditional needs and values.

62. ***The problem of maintaining the standard of existing resources***, e.g. maintaining an adequately trained and motivated teacher supply and restoring dilapidated physical facilities may at least in part be due to a preference for emphasizing development as defined by new projects rather than maintenance of existing facilities. Poor teaching materials is yet another problem that needs immediate attention.

Some Suggested Alternative Solutions

63. The question of a better performance of African educational systems involves consideration of both quantitative and qualitative dimensions. Problems need to be seen in their proper cultural context and approached in a multi-disciplinary way with an eye on revitalization, selective expansion, diversification and decentralization. It is within this perspective that the integrated strategy proposed in Table 6 above should be critically examined and understood.

64. Serious internal and external rethinking would call for the following:

1) Matters concerning the inputs of education; for example healthy and educable pupils, qualified and content teachers, suitable text-books, relevant teaching materials, and appropriate instructional language policies need to be addressed.

2) Better education administration, planning and implementation. These imply clearer objective formulation, articulation and common involvement of relevant groups at all levels. This objective will also have to include considerations for an easier transition of the pupils and students between the various levels of education.

3) The intensification and rationalization of school and out-of-school literacy teaching, with an emphasis on the complimentarity of adult literacy teaching and primary education. An enhanced use of the existing non-formal education pattern has an essential contribution to make with respect to rationalization of literacy teaching.

4) Curriculum restructuring to include realistic basic environmental care in schools and the consideration of choice of language for instruction as well as for the maintenance of indigenous languages.

5) The stepping up of relevant educational research and educational evaluation as well as a systematic use of scientific, cultural and technological research to identify, define and master some of the problems of the continent.

SECTION III

Educational Planning in Africa

65. The institutionalization of educational planning in Africa is a rather recent phenomenon. In most of the African countries, educational planning was institutionalized in the 1960s and 1970s. In Africa, as in various other parts of the world, educational planning was greatly influenced by the general policies of planned social, cultural and economic change replacing the traditional piece meal and laissez-faire approaches. Educational planning became an important component of national development planning. At the time of independence and immediately afterwards, African nations found it imperative to have a forward-looking rather than backward-looking perspective in planning their educational systems to meet the ever increasing needs of nation building. Elitist and restrictive access and provision to educational services were in general replaced by a populist system of education.

66. Planning education for the young Africans of tomorrow became a challenge to people from all walks of life. At an earlier phase, the social-demand approach to educational planning became predominant. There was a massive expansion of educational facilities and services in order to compensate for the limited educational access which prevailed during the colonial period. Later, educational investments were examined from the standpoint of meeting a particular country's manpower needs and requirements. This was then followed by a greater emphasis upon cost-benefit analysis of such investments in terms of priorities attached to different levels and types of education. It is important to note that all three approaches to educational planning (social-demand, manpower-planning and cost-benefit) were used simultaneously at various points in time. One would not be surprised to find that they are still in vogue today in most circles of policy-making, planning and implementation in these countries.

Organization and Major Functions of Educational Planning

67. In recent years, the notion of educational planning and its relevance to the present political, socio-cultural and economic contexts of African countries were strongly debated at both national and international levels. New directions for educational development and educational planning in Africa were presented in the Lagos Plan of Action (1980), the Harare Conference of MINEDAF V (1982), the OAU Heads of State Conference on Priority Programme for Africa's Economic Recovery (1985) and the recent Khartoum Declaration: "Towards a Human-Focused Approach to Socio-Economic Recovery and Development in Africa" (1988). The current challenges to educational planning in Africa should be understood in the light of the recommendations from these summits and conferences as well as in view of the three recent analytical documents dealing with this particular topic in Africa, namely, (1) *Education and Training Policies in Sub-Saharan Africa--Problems, Guidelines and Prospects* (Unesco, 1987a); (2) *Education*

Policies for Sub-Saharan Africa: Adjustment, Revitalization and Expansion (The World Bank, 1988); and (3) the recent programme of action proposed by the Director-General of Unesco for the period 1990-1995 *Priority: Africa* (1989).

68. An attempt is made here to select some of the major trends in the practice of educational planning in Africa. It should be noted however, that it is impossible to do justice to particular changes taking place in this field within each of the African countries. Very often it is the case that these national changes are not properly documented, disseminated nor accounted for.

69. African countries do not claim to have an endogenous system of educational planning. In fact, the development of educational planning in Africa was greatly inspired by the achievements and progress made in other parts of the world mainly with regards to its organizational structures, functions, techniques and innovations. For example, many of the current issues and problems of educational planning as addressed at the international seminar organized by the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) in 1983 are constantly reported in national and sub-national seminars and workshops on educational planning in the African countries. Two general questions from the IIEP seminar can be noted here.

> *Should educational planning draw its inspiration from past experience, limiting itself to the manipulation of statistical data, for example to quantify the participation of a given clientèle in a given type of education and to project the consequences of this participation in the light of certain financial, population, etc., factors? Or should it, on the contrary, open up the horizons of its thinking as regards the necessary and sufficient types of information and if so, upon what criteria should this information be identified, gathered, classified, and disseminated? (IIEP, 1984:10).*

70. The Unesco Regional Office for Education in Africa (BREDA) has since its inception been instrumental in the process of institutionalizing educational planning in Africa with the assistance of national, bilateral, regional and international agencies and institutions. In recent years, the major activities of BREDA in this field have concentrated on the Regional Technical Project for Training and Research in Educational Planning and Administration having as an acronym COFORPA. The COFORPA project is open to all Member States of Unesco in Sub-Saharan Africa. By 1988, 34 of the 44 Member States in the region participated in its various activities (see COFORPA Final Reports, 1984, 1986; COFORPA-Liaison, Nos 1 and 2, 1986; Consultation on COFORPA Phase II, Final Report, 1988; and Chinapah, 1988 *Consultancy Report for Regional Technical Cooperation in Education for Human Resources Development in Africa*). A great deal of evidence about the major trends in educational planning and administration in Africa are based upon the materials available in these documents.

71. Organizational and functional activities in the field of educational planning have, over the years, expanded tremendously in most African countries in response to the rapid quantitative and qualitative developments of their educational systems which, for centuries, were blocked by the colonial regimes. Starting with a

small unit, bureau or department located at the Ministry of Education, educational planning was given a too pretentious and ambitious task. It resulted in the situation we have today in many of these countries, namely the need to compartmentalize educational planning units, bureaus or directorates into divisions, departments or sections specializing in various aspects of educational planning at the central-level. Likewise, many conventional macro-level educational planning strategies gave way to more micro-oriented ones as evidenced through the importance attached to school mapping and micro-planning, decentralization, or planning by programs and projects. An equally important emphasis is given to the qualitative aspects of educational planning mainly in relation to problems of educational wastage (drop-outs, failures, and grade-repeating); educational inequalities between regions and among different socio-economic and cultural groups; gender disparities; unemployment and job-creation; youth and adult illiteracy; and increasing educational costs.

72. An important function of educational planning units or their equivalents has been to coordinate and communicate with other ministries and with corresponding units at regional and sub-regional levels. Here it is often difficult to separate the planning functions from those of administration and management. At present, very little is done to ascertain the practice of centralization and/or decentralization of educational planning in Africa. Compartmentalization of educational planning may be observed in most African countries through the increased number of divisions, sections, or departments fulfilling various educational planning functions. They are grouped here into four major categories to illustrate their different functions:

1) Statistics, Information and Documentation: responsible for the collecting processing, analyzing and disseminating of educational statistics involving diagnosis and projection.
2) School Mapping, Construction and Equipment: responsible for the updating of the school atlas and school maps; selection of sites and plans for school buildings and construction: updating specifications for all educational supplies; studies and surveys on equipments and maintenance requirements. Often these activities involve micro-planning at institutional levels.
3) Preparation, Implementation, Evaluation and Monitoring of Educational Plans, Programs and Projects: responsible for surveys of national needs and priorities for short-term and long-term educational plans and for externally funded programs and projects; identification and allocation of human, financial, material and organizational resources; evaluation, and monitoring of program and project implementation.
4) Studies and Research: responsible for diagnosis, evaluation, and forecasting of needs for various levels and types of education; surveys on curriculum, examination, educational finance, educational disparities; studies on school administration and management.

73. In addition to these four main categories, one may find special entities dealing only with externally financed programs and projects like the external relations service in Ethiopia and Central

African Republic, the project implementation unit in Kenya or the project planning, monitoring and evaluation unit in Sierra Leone. In some cases, there are country-specific entities, for instance, programming and control in Benin, pedagogy in Cap-Verde, computers in Gabon, or school facilities section in The Gambia. An analysis from some 21 countries in the region confirms the typology of functions mentioned above. The results are shown in Table 7 below.

74. An ever-increasing amount of coordination has evolved in the process of planning education in Africa as it seems also to be the case elsewhere. It is often argued that educational planning which encompasses a vast and complex area of social, cultural, political, and economic interventions with a focus on the entire educational sector should be seen through the eyes of different groups of actors, agents, and beneficiaries that stand both *upstream* and *downstream* of the planning and administrative systems (IIEP, 1984:131). Coordination, information, and communication linkages are often the prime determinants of successful planning and implementation.

Table 7: Entries from 21 African Countries on Major Functions of Educational Planning

Functions	N	%
-Collection, Processing, Analysis and Dissemination of Statistics	14	67%
-Elaboration and Evaluation of Plans	13	62%
-School Mapping	12	57%
-Different Studies	11	53%
-Preparation and Execution of Investment Programs	6	27%
-Training	5	24%
-Formulation and Evaluation of Educational Policy Objectives	5	24%
-Formulation and Follow-up of Agreements and Contracts	3	14%
-School, University and Professional Orientation	2	9%
-Educational Projection	2	9%

Source: Adapted from COFORPA document 86/9, BREDA, 1986:3

75. Below we shall complement the regional perspective given so far on the organization and major functions of educational planning with examples from few selected countries in the region. By not being representative of the region itself, these examples are intended to capture some unique organizational and functional properties of educational planning. These country presentations are drawn from the information available in COFORPA Liaison Nos 1 & 2 (1986) and from the returns to the recent questionnaire survey organized by Unesco's Division of Educational Policy and Planning (EPP). There may be some missing as well as inadequate information in these presentations due to more recent organizational and functional changes in educational planning in these countries.

76. *Burkina Faso:* Before the creation of the Planning Directorate in 1974, educational planning did not extend beyond statistical data

collection. The Planning Directorate is made up of three divisions: (1) Statistics, School Mapping and Information Division, responsible for statistical data analysis and interpretation, statistical yearbook preparation and school mapping; (2) Projects and Programming Division undertaking various studies, system efficiency, costs and financing analysis, drafting of development plans and strategies, design and development of educational projects; and (3) Research-Evaluation Division which pursues research and studies to further educational system development and evaluation of results. As a sector planning unit, the Planning Directorate participates in close collaboration with the Ministry of Planning and Community Development in drafting the development plan. The Directorate has no decentralized units. At the regional level, the education inspectorates under the authority of a primary education inspector assisted by a pedagogical counsellor, are responsible for the supervision, pedagogical control, and management of teachers, as well as for statistical data collection. Personnel turnover and under-training of staff as well as the highly hierarchical system of educational governance limit the possibilities for effective planning, administration and management of education in the country.

77. *Burundi:* Educational Planning has recently been re-organized under two educational planning bureaus, one for the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, and one for the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research. Up to 1986, the educational planning bureau of the Ministry of National Education had the main responsibility for planning. The bureau had three departments, namely: (1) the Planning and School Mapping Department which is responsible for undertaking studies and research on the current operation of the educational system, assisting national authorities in the definition of national policy and educational objectives and achieving regional balance in educational development; (2) the School Statistics and Documentation Department, responsible for collecting all information related to the educational system; and (3) the School Orientation Department which is responsible for the orientation of pupils having completed the first cycle. It also played an active role within the national sub-commission of human resources planning. The educational planning process and educational management in Burundi are characterized by a bottom-top hierarchical relationship, i.e. from the local communities, school institutions, cantonal inspectorate, provincial inspectorate to central ministries' level. Parents' and community associations as well as religious authorities participate in the planning, administration and management of education in the country. For example, local communities are involved in the management and construction of schools through the parents' associations, while religious authorities in the creation of new schools. The regional planning sub-commission grouped together the regional authorities of different decentralized services under the chairmanship of the Provincial Governor. However, the implementation of educational policies is not always carried out effectively because, of not only human and financial resources but also, because of inadequate and unreliable information-base for educational planning. The same situation is observed in relation to evaluation and follow-up of plans, programmes and projects. Coordination and communication between the planning office and other

departments of the Ministry as well as the insufficiency of qualified personnel and the lack of logistic means and teaching materials are found to be major bottlenecks for educational planning, administration and management.

78. ***Ethiopia:*** In Ethiopia, the Planning and External Relations Services within the Ministry of Education is responsible for educational planning . It comprises of five specialized services: (1) Planning and Programming; (2) Educational Statistics and Information; (3) Project Preparation and Finance; (4) External Relations; and (5) Educational Research. Educational offices are found in all 15 regions and in all 106 awrajas (provinces). The education offices carry out planning, information and data collection duties in close collaboration with Educational Planning and External Relations Services. At the central level, the Government through the Office of the National Committee for Central Planning (ONCCP) is responsible for resource target setting while for the education sectoral planning, the Ministry of Education's Policy Committee composing of all heads of departments and agencies, approves issues requiring directives, and ratifies draft submitted to ONCCP for final approval. ONCCP is also responsible for coordinating training programmes of various ministries and organizations. At the regional level, under the guidance of the Ministry of Education, the education offices are responsible for administrative services, planning and implementation of education programmes. At the awraja (provincial) level, education offices attend day-to-day school administration, information collection, instructional materials distribution, and primary school teacher recruitment; and at the institutional or school level, the School Management Committee, an elected body from the popular movements, government teachers and students organizations, co-ordinates and mobilizes community participation in educational plans and programmes. The planning offices at all levels play an active role in the setting-up of financial priorities and in resource mobilization. All activities related to the organization of curricula and instruction are the responsibility of the Headteacher or the Principal. Common strategies used to co-ordinate government and popular organization include: written directives with specific instructions defining tasks and responsibilities; conferences, meetings, workshops, and seminars to enhance general understanding of administrative duties. The level of implementation of agreed-upon measures is checked by controlling agencies. Most problems occur in the course of implementation of educational policies. Policy priorities are not often matched with resource allocation leading to delays in meeting project local-level requirements of projects. The communication between education institutions and various levels in the hierarchy is not effectively pursued. Together with these constraints, educational planning, administration and management suffers from the high rate of attrition among the personnel, the lack of confidence and commitment in educational administration, and poor quality personnel.

79. ***Kenya:*** Educational Planning in Kenya is ensured through the Planning and Development Division consisting of six units: (1) Manpower Development Unit; (2) Development Unit; (3) Statistics Unit; (4) Planning Unit; (5) Facilities Unit; and (6) Project Implementation Unit. The Planning Unit is responsible for the

preparation of the national development plans for education, the preparation of overall project proposals, briefs and plans for all levels of education and training. By July 1983, the Kenyan Government adopted a policy of Rural Focus Development Strategy increasing decision-making at the district and local levels. The District Development Committee (DDC) has become the nerve-centre of all planning and development activities at district levels. Co-ordination and liaison are secured through the District Education Board (DEB) which is a sub-committee of DDC, the responsibilities of which include the preparation and the promotion of educational development plans and the supervision of the implementation of such plans. For day-to-day management of educational institutions, boards of governors have been established; the head of each institution is the secretary to the board. At the local level, the parents' association are the coordinating bodies assisted by the school committees and participate in planning and promoting development in their respective local schools. The lack of logistics, trained personnel and financial resources are considered to be major problem areas for educational planning, administration and management in the country.

80. ***Senegal:*** In Senegal, educational planning is entrusted to two ministries with their own Planning Directorate, namely: the Research and Planning Directorate within the Ministry of National Education, and the Studies and Planning Directorate within the Ministry of Higher Education. The former consists of statistical, school mapping, cost and financing, and projects departments while the latter of research, planning and costs, and legal and document divisions. At the regional and department levels, the decentralized structures of educational planning are under the responsibility of regional and department inspectors of elementary education. The aims of these structures are: (a) to collect statistical data and carry out the first task of statistical summary; and (b) to participate in the preparation of school mapping. The General National Education Inspectorate which groups together the entire body of general inspectors is responsible for the pedagogic control and the pedagogic promotion of different disciplines. The lack of facilities for data collection, processing and analysis is common at the Planning Directorate of both ministries and at the decentralized level of educational planning.

81. ***Togo:*** Educational Planning in Togo is ensured through the Educational Planning General Directorate composing of (1) the Education Planning Central Directorate; (2) the School and University Facilities Construction and Maintenance Directorate; and (3) the Education Projects Execution Directorate. The main functions of the Educational Planning General Directorate are organized along the following divisions: Financial Affairs Division, for the preparation and execution of ordinary and capital budgets, material and equipment management; Financing Division, for financing and cost analysis; Statistics Division, for demographic studies, statistical data collection and processing, publication of statistical yearbook; School Mapping Division, for all school mapping activities; and Research, Forecasting and Evaluation Division, for education and training medium and long-term research and forecasts. At the regional level, the regional presence of the Educational Planning

Central Directorate is ensured by five regional directorates responsible for the collection and development of regional statistics, regional school mapping, and execution of projects or programmes delegated by the General Directorate. At both central and regional levels, functioning problems are related to insufficient staff and to the lack of training in educational planning, administration and management.

82. ***Zimbabwe:*** In Zimbabwe, the Planning/Policy Division of the Ministry of Higher Education coordinates major educational planning functions. Together with the Finance and Administration divisions, the Planning/Policy Division works in a team approach in the initiation, endorsement and discussion of projects pertaining to its mandate. Each division is headed by a Deputy Secretary who in turn, is assisted by Chief Educational Officers, their deputies and education officers. The Planning/Policy Division does however, not generate programmes and projects for implementation by other divisions. The Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development plays a vital role in educational planning and programming through its control of the financing and through its responsibility in Public Sector Investment Programme. Still at the central level, the Ministry of Higher Education collaborates with the Ministry of Primary and Education in matters of educational projections, curriculum development, certification, and examination. The planning process benefits significantly from the input and intervention of various professional organizations and from institutions of learning such as the University of Zimbabwe. Shortage of skilled personnel and reliance upon expatriates are common features of the personnel situation in the country. From the standpoints of implementation, management and monitoring of educational plans, programmes and projects, the discrepancy between the decision-making process and actual implementation is not properly settled, for example, in matters related to financial, personnel and information-dissemination inputs and short-term and long-term expected outcomes. Evaluation and monitoring processes are not given their proper functions in the course of implementation of plans, programmes and projects. Some of these constraints were observed by Jali (1988) in his discussion of organizational perspectives for the development of educational planning in Zimbabwe. He also pointed out that the Planning Unit of the Ministry has to face challenges related to: a) uncertainty of funding to facilitate educational expansion; b) the rationalization of the role of the State in the provision of secondary education; and c) social-demand pressures for education. All these called for planning within the boundaries of different priorities which should be continuously evaluated and timely monitored.

> *No plan is error-free, but we should not hesitate because we fear to make mistakes. We should evaluate plans regularly and discard the dead wood. Since both micro and macro plans that deal with the long as well as short term are needed, evaluation should play an ongoing role. A decentralized system can ensure effective faster evaluation.*
>
> *Jali (1988:55)*

Progress and Challenges in Educational Planning

83. In most African countries, educational planning units, or their equivalents, function more as coordinating bodies establishing liaisons at both the horizontal and vertical levels of educational decision-making and implementation as being observed in the previous paragraphs. Paradoxically, many of the drawbacks of current educational planning practices are related to poor coordination, information and communication linkages as evidenced through a number of country reports on the functioning of educational planning in the region. However, it is important to note that generally, there is not a corresponding improvement in resources (personnel, financial, and material) to meet the expanding functions and activities of educational planning at both central and sub-national levels. Many countries reported a lack of qualified and competent personnel, scarcity of financial resources, weak information systems, and poor infrastructures for educational planning at all levels. Many of the future challenges of educational planning will need to attend to some of the largely unattended problems of the past as well as to those that emerge from the Programme of Action for African Economic Recovery and Development.

84. Among the many challenges in educational planning in Africa, those associated with (a) organizational and structural issues; (b) personnel development; and (c) quality of the information-base for planning, deserve particular attention.

85. *Organizational and Structural Issues.* Centralization or over-centralization of educational policy-making, planning and administration was often a major consideration in these countries, while today, organizational and structural changes are carried out with greater emphasis given to regional planning, school mapping and micro-planning. It is believed that these changes are necessary and will contribute to the following developments in the area:

a) establishing or strengthening the linkages between policy-making and actual implementation of educational plans, programs and projects, which in turn may result in better and more realistic planning and programming;
b) increasing the flow of information and ensuring a greater participation among different agents, actors and beneficiaries directly or indirectly involved in the processes and outcomes of educational planning at central, regional, and sub-regional levels;
c) reducing problems of educational inequalities and educational wastage and enhancing the relevance of education;
d) improving planning, administration, management functions at the sub-national levels;
e) providing better opportunities for evaluation, monitoring, and follow-up of educational policies, plans, programmes and projects; and
f) facilitating the rationalization and utilization of available resources for education and educationally related-services.

Table 8:

Training Needs in Educational Planning, Administration and Management (22 countries)

TRAINING NEEDS	ANGOLA 1986	BENIN 1984	BURKINA FASO 1984	BURUNDI 1984	CAP-VERDE 1984	COMOROS 1986	CONGO 1986	GABON 1984	GAMBIA 1984	GUINEA	GUINEA-BISSAU	KENYA 1984 (E)	MAURI-TANIE 1986	NIGER 1985	RCA 1984	RWANDA 1984	SENE-GAL 1984	SIERRA LEONE 1984	TANZANIA 1984(F)	TCHAD 1985	TOGO	ZAIRE
.Sensitization and introd. to educ. training and adm. (initial training)			NEED	70		60	50					109	91	140	55	NEED		320		115		30
. Intensive training concerning the entire process of educ. plan. and adm.		200		10	15		34	100	22(b)		6				22	NEED	77					74
.Appropriate training at central and regional levels for collection of statist. data and school mapping				100	20(a)	60			33	90(a)	64	22	30		90	NEED	91	50	144	40	240(g)	170
.Continued training in educ. adm. and (school) management				200						100	800(c)				50							
.Pre-service and in-service training prog. for educ.adm. (central/regional levels)	NEED	4000				50	50		1500			1750	80					600	NEED			
.Training in the field of financial management					25												2466					
.In-depth training for educ. and human resource planners			NEED			4						18	15					30	197	13		30
. Study visits of other nat. training programmes											2											
.Training in computerized managem.of the educ. systems (statisticians/programmers)				5						30												
.Documentation, archives					15					60												
.Supervision of schools and curricula										140												
.Project dept. and evaluat. costs and financing of educ.										50												
.Training of trainers and researchers of educ. plan. and adm.	NEED	40	NEED	NEED			10	NEED	NEED		NEED(d)	69	8	6	NEED		NEED	30	421		14	
.Training of trainers/human resource planning			NEED					NEED								12						
.Training of trainers in educ. statistics	40														3							
Total	40	4240		385	75	174	144	100	1555	470	872	1968	226	146	220	12	2634	1030	762	182	254	344

(a) Including school constructions (b) Formal and non-formal education (c) At the National Institute for Education Development (INDE) (d) Especially in educational administration (e) Training needs for senior and middle-level staff in long and short term (f) In long and short term (g) For 5 Years, including regional planning

Source: COFORPA-Liaison, No 1&2, 1986, Unesco-BREDA

86. *Personnel Development.* The rapidly changing and expanding systems of educational planning and administration in Africa have not been accompanied by a corresponding increase and improvement in personnel serving these systems. Besides high problems of attrition and mobility among the planning personnel, many systems have suffered from a lack of a proper structure for ensuring on a permanent basis pre-service and in-service training of educational planners. Likewise, very little has been done to improve the initial skills and competencies needed to adjust to the demands and challenges of educational planning in response to the fast-changing environments of these countries.

> *By contrast, the new tasks set for planning within a new and more holistic approach to human resource development place new demands on the skills and understanding of educational planners. This means that both the pre-service and the in-service training of educational planners is to be readjusted to their new roles, functions and professional identity. These training and staff-development programmes need to have a multidisciplinary structure, content and orientation so as to enable educational planners to understand and cope with their new tasks (Chinapah, Löfstedt and Weiler, 1989:29).*

87. Although, it is difficult to make any cross-comparison of the training needs in the region, it is possible to estimate the amount of training (initial and in-service) required to assure good and reasonable quality of educational planning, administration and management. This is shown in Table 8 above. The training needs are both quantified and qualified in terms of skills and competencies required in, for example, the process of educational planning and administration, human resource development planning, school management, financial management, curriculum development and supervision.

88. *Information-Base for Planning.* The performance of educational planning depends largely on the nature, coverage, quality and relevance of the information-base for decision-making, implementation, evaluation and monitoring purposes. In the majority of the countries in the region, there is a lack of accurate and complete data for a systematic and comprehensive analysis of the present educational system and for making projections and scenarios for the future. Similarly, there is a lack of information pertaining to personnel and financial management (staff recruitment, staff turnover, salary patterns and promotion principles, resource allocations and re-allocations procedures and practices, co-ordination of funds from public and private sources, and cost-recovery strategies). Emphasis on crude and quantitative data often limits the possibilities of examining the qualitative aspects of educational planning. Data are limited for analyses of the causes of educational wastage and poor academic achievement of schools and students in many of these countries.

89. Altogether, an improvement in the information-base for education can only be encouraged through frequent and more effective evaluation, monitoring and research works. For instance, the research agenda presented at the workshop for trainers and researchers of the COFORPA project in 1984 should be considered more closely. This research agenda included most of the topics still

relevant for educational planning today, namely:

- Efficiency of education systems;
- Utilization of educational resources (human, financial, capital);
- Linkage between formal and non-formal education and planning for their integrated development;
- Education, work and employment;
- Introduction of productive work in education;
- Planning and implementation of the use of national languages in education;
- Costs and financing of education;
- Strategy for developing applied research capacities;
- Planning and production of training materials; and
- Traditional values and educational policies.

(BREDA, COFORPA, 1984:20)

SECTION IV

Educational Administration and Management in Africa

90. Much of what has been observed from the previous section bears a direct relevance to the situation (problems and prospects) of educational administration in Africa. In this section, an overview of the organizational structures and functions of educational administration in the region will be first presented. This is then followed by an examination of the recent trends in educational administration in respect to decentralization and participation, and educational reform. Finally, some attention will be given to the importance of educational management. Other issues relating to the training situation of administrative personnel and possibilities for regional and international cooperation in this field will be taken up in later sections.

91. Educational administration and educational planning overlap with each other in the fulfillment of their functions which, to a large extent, are of a complementary nature. It is therefore difficult, if not impossible, to draw the boundary between the two.

> *The relationship between planning and administration may be better conceived as a continuum rather than a dichotomy, with planning locations of new schools or making enrolment projections at one extreme as an obviously planning activity and the day-to-day financial management of individual institutions at the other as obviously administratively activity. There is a range of activities in between in which there is a variable mix of planning, defined as plotting the course of change needed to meet defined objectives, and administration, managing given resources of finance, buildings and manpower to greatest effect (IIEP, 1987:36).*

92. While educational planning has often been given a role of its own, educational administration has, on the other hand, been closely associated with the general system of public administration from organizational, functional and operational standpoints. For instance, in many countries of Africa, decentralization of educational administration *per se* cannot be separated from overall policies and practices of decentralization.

93. To illustrate further organizational and major functions of educational administration and management, examples from some countries in the region are presented below using the information provided in COFORPA Liaison Nos. 1 & 2 (1986) and returns from the recent questionnaire survey administered by EPP at Unesco. As mentioned earlier, many of these functions overlap with those in the area of educational planning. Cross-reference to the previous section should be made to take into account the common administrative and managerial functions from some other country-presentations.

94. ***Benin:*** Central-level educational administration in Benin is performed by: (1) the General Directorate of the Ministry of Kindergarten and Basic Education whose main responsibility is to coordinate under the Minister's authority ministerial activities with

educational development objectives set by the Government; (2) the Research and Planning Directorate which deals with the development, implementation and control of the educational plan; and (3) the Financial and Administrative Affairs Directorate mandating the drafting and administration of departmental budget and personnel management. At the provincial level, education is administered by the six provinces, each comprising two directorates: (i) education broken down into eighty-four education districts; (ii) literacy and rural press. The economic constraints leading to severe lack of material and financial resources as well as the shortage of qualified staff, poor quality and unavailing relevant information are major bottlenecks for effective implementation of planning, administrative and managerial functions of the different organizations at national and sub-national levels. However, progress is achieved in the process of democratizing education in terms of provision of schooling facilities and teachers while still a lot of efforts is required to ensure a satisfactory level of internal and external efficiency of the educational system.

95. ***Cap Verde:*** At the central level, administrative functions are organized and ensured through: (1) the Education General Directorate for the functioning of all schools and in collaboration with the Secretariat General; (2) the Secretariat General responsible for financial, personnel and material management, coordinating all international and co-operation and overseas training activities and maintaining supervision of educational projects; (3) the Inspectorate General which supervise all educational actions; and (4) the Directorate of Non-Formal Education responsible for adult literacy programmes and projects. At the regional level, the regional directorate supervises educational and cultural activities in the islands of San Vicente, Santo Antao and San Nicolau. The research and planning bureau of the Ministry has a pedagogical department dealing with textbook and teaching materials development, review of school programmes at various teaching levels, review of teacher training and re-orientation to suit national needs. It also has a statistics and planning division responsible for statistical data collection and analysis, execution of studies for educational plan development, project preparation and follow-up. There is lack of an appropriate infrastructure for educational planning, administration and management in the country in terms of human, financial and material resources. However, greater improvement can be ensured through the establishment of proper information-communication and dissemination networks to avoid the scattering and duplication of functions across various departments, poor quality of leadership and lack of commitment which, altogether hinders the rationalization and cost-efficiency of the various functional services offered.

96. ***Mauritius:*** The Ministry of Education, Culture and Arts is responsible for educational administration in the country. The Ministry's planning, administrative and managerial functions are delegated, on the one hand, to the Development and Planning Division and to the Performance, Monitoring and Evaluation Unit while on the other hand, jointly co-ordinated with the Ministry of Economic Planning and Development, the University of Mauritius, parastatal bodies, the Industrial Vocational Board, and other line ministries

(health, agriculture, and social security). Greater participation from these bodies are ensured through advisory committees, meeting and forums. For example, committees are set up for consultation on important educational issues bringing together specialists from various development sectors, educationists, planners, parents, unions, representatives of ministries and so on to arrive at a consensus before any major educational policy decision is taken. Major difficulties arise in the course of educational implementation of programmes and projects partly as the result of the present economic boom causing time delays between decision-making and actual implementation, and the lack of necessary human and material resources. Although in-built monitoring is pursued to check progress of ongoing projects and apply corrective measures where necessary, planning, administration and management of education suffer greatly from the absence of comprehensive system of educational evaluation, control and research.

97. ***Niger:*** In Niger, educational administration is carried out centrally at the Ministry of National Education for school education, literacy and continuing training, at the Ministry of Higher Education for university education and research and at the various ministries (Public Service, Posts and Telecommunications, Information, and Health) for vocationally-related training activities. The major planning, administrative and managerial functions are however, entrusted for planning, to the Studies and Programming Directorate of the Ministry of National Education which comprises of (1) Statistics and School Mapping Office; (2) Studies and Plan Follow-up Office; (3) School Infrastructure and Facilities Office; and (4) Project Office and for administration, to the Secretariat General, the Personnel and Administrative Affairs Directorate, the Financial Services Directorate and the Primary education, secondary and technical education and Arab education directorates. As in many other countries, the major decision-making and coordinating processes of sectoral development plan are the mandates of the Ministry of Planning. At the regional level, educational administration is carried out through the inspectorate of primary education, secondary education, Arab education and literacy and continuing education. The inspectorates deal with administrative, financial, pedagogical and other issues as they relate to their region. The whole planning, administrative and managerial processes start right from the individual school in the village, sub-regional and regional institutions to the central level departments and organizations. These processes allow better opportunities for data collection and analysis, and educational evaluation and control which in turn, provide necessary feed-backs in terms of achievements and shortcomings in plan implementation. Besides poor quality training of personnel and frequent turnovers, plan implementation is constrained by the current economic crisis calling for the need of low-cost school buildings, diversification educational financing by promoting more privatization of education and greater resource mobilization from parents and students.

98. It has also been observed that over-centralized or decentralized educational administration has a direct consequence on the over-centralization or on the decentralization of educational planning, respectively. We shall present two examples as cases in

point here to complement the several country-presentations elaborated earlier. The first example is Tanzania which had both a policy and practice of decentralization since 1972 while the second one is Uganda where attempts have been made to decentralize educational administration while keeping educational planning still centralized. These two cases, developed below, are taken from the IIEP report dealing with the training of trainers in Eastern and Southern Africa (1987:121-140).

99. ***Tanzania:*** In Tanzania, decentralization of educational planning and administration is the mandate of regional authorities, which among others are entrusted with the following functions:

- *control and manage primary and adult education development;*
- *prepare plans (annual, short term and long term) and make budget allocation for development projects. However, before plans become operational, the Minister of Education must approve them;*
- *organize and implement primary and adult education programmes and specific projects;*
- *provide funds for purchasing textbooks, school equipment, stationery;*
- *mobilize parents and some institutions (churches) in constructing classrooms, teacher quarters, etc.*

100. The Regional Educational Officer (REO) is a key person in the management and administration of primary and adult education. He mobilizes resources with the framework of the Regional Development Office. Professionally, the REO is accountable to the Principal Secretary, politically to the Regional Commissioner, and administratively to the Regional Development Director. At lower levels, the REO is assisted by the District Educational Officers (DEOs) at district level and by Ward Educational Officers (WEOs) at ward level. The DEO is professionally accountable to the REO, administratively to the District Executive Officer and, politically to the Area Commissioner. The DEO is particularly of importance for the allocation of resources to the schools while the WEO plays a crucial role in community resource mobilization. The latter has also a closer pedagogical and supervisory contact and influence over the schools than the DEO. Some training was ensured by the Management Institute for Educational Planning (MANTEP) to strengthen the administrative and managerial competencies of middle-level and senior-level educational officers and managers.

101. ***Uganda:*** As mentioned above, decentralization in Uganda is limited to mainly administrative functions which are delegated to Regional Education Officers and Regional Inspectors of Schools. In practice, very little educational planning has been undertaken at the regional level largely because the regions are not yet firmly established and equipped with the necessary authority and facilities such as funds, transport, equipment and, in some cases, office accommodation. However, while examining the major functions at the regional level, it appears that many of them form part and parcel of educational planning as illustrated below:

- *ensure efficient administration of schools and colleges and regular inspection of teachers' work, with a view of assisting*

them and reporting on their performance;
- *recommend, advise and take decisions, where necessary, on appointments, general staffing and discipline of teachers in the region;*
- *ensure proper and efficient functioning of Boards of Governors and Management Committees and their memberships;*
- *advise on the establishment of schools for the handicapped, new schools and monitor their performance;*
- *inspect, advise and report on professional matters, physical facilities, teaching materials and equipment in schools;*
- *monitor and supervise, where necessary, construction of new buildings and facilities;*
- *assist the Planning Unit by way of advice on establishment and expansion of Educational Institutes;*
- *stimulate and inspire professional associations, seminars, courses and workshops;*
- *co-ordinate co-curricular activities like music, sports, games and drama;*
- *assist examining panels in the assessment of final year students in Teacher Training Colleges;*
- *assist in matters connected with the Teaching Service Commission;*
- *facilitate collection, storage and distribution of educational data;*
- *maintain the effective link between the region and the Ministry Headquarters for the purpose of facilitating, guiding and ensuring effective policy implementation.*

102. Before dealing with the organizational features and major functions of educational administration in the region, an attempt is made here to summarize the major bottlenecks in its practice as reported in some of the country-studies. In Table 9 below, the major bottlenecks in educational administration as evidenced from 16 countries in the region are presented. Additional information is provided in terms of training needs in educational planning and administration for 22 countries in the region (see Table 8).

103. The results in Table 9 clearly indicate a poor capacity for educational administration in terms of skills and competencies. All 16 countries reported a lack of qualified administrative personnel which in turn is revealed by the poor capacity of training educational administrators at the national level. (This is further verified by the data for the 22 countries in the region presented in Table 9.) It is often remarked that creating new structures for educational administration would solve only some of the apparent problems. Ten of the 16 countries noted problems of coordination, participation and communication in addition to those referring to lack of qualified personnel, training facilities, etc. As a whole, it is possible to conclude that successful educational administration depends more on the quality of the administrative personnel and to a lesser extent on financial and material resources.

Table 9: Entries from 16 Countries in the region on Major Bottlenecks for Educational Administration

Major Bottlenecks	N	%
Lack of Qualified Personnel	16	100.0
Personnel Turnover and Mobility	7	43.8
Lack of Resources (financial and material)	7	43.8
Poor Infrastructure (logistics, Transportation, etc.)	8	50.0
Lack of Training Facilities	12	75.0
Coordination, Participation and Communication Barriers	10	62.5
Lack of Rewards and Incentives	8	50.0

Organization and Major Functions of Educational Administration

104. Generally, educational administration as any type of administration can be approached from three interrelated perspectives: organizational/structural, functional and operational. Generally, educational administration can be defined as an organizational structure consisting of a hierarchy of systems and sub-systems at national and sub-national levels with different interrelated functions delegated and made operational through the interactions of an ensemble of different actors and agents serving education development purposes of a nation. This definition does not vary much across countries, but in practice the nature, scope and coverage of educational administration are very much determined by political and socio-economic structures of a country.

105. In the 1960s, most African nations were heavily involved in the setting up of appropriate educational administrative structures to cope with the massive expansion of their educational and educationally-related developmental needs. For some years, concerted efforts were made to strengthen these structures in terms of trained and qualified personnel, financial and material resources and facilities, and general infrastructures. Today in these countries, the maintenance of existing structures, and their adjustment and improvement in order to satisfy the prerequisites for educational reforms, changes and innovations are the major preoccupations of educational administration.

106. From the information available on most of the countries in the region, the following general trends are observed. First, educational administration is often pursued in joint collaboration with other line ministries directly involved with certain types of education, for example, Ministries of Social Welfare, Youth and Sports, Health, Employment, and the like. Second, in some countries, educational administration is organized along more than one ministry and by levels or types of education (e.g. Ministry of General Education, Ministry of Technical and Vocational Education, Ministry of Non-Formal or Adult Education, Ministry of Higher of Education). Third, it is rather common in many countries that some aspects of educational administration have remained centralized (educational

financing, personnel management, curriculum planning and development, legal affairs, research and policy-making, fellowships and awards) while others such as inspection and supervision, examination, production, distribution and maintenance of equipments and facilities are delegated to regional and sub-regional levels. Fourth, in some countries, regional and to a lesser extent, district administrative offices are mandated to administer primary or basic education as well as non-formal and literacy programmes. As a whole, it can be said that in the region increasing efforts are being made to decentralize educational administration while emphasizing greater participation in educational management from headteachers and school principals, school committees and parent-teacher associations.

107. The executive responsibility for educational administration differs from country to country but frequently it lies in the office of the Permanent Secretary or Secretaries for Education or in the Secretariat General for Education. Subordinated to these offices are several departments, directorates or divisions dealing with specific aspects of educational administration and specific levels and types of education. As mentioned earlier, some of the specific functions are often delegated to regional and sub-regional offices depending upon the degree of centralization and decentralization in each country. The most common administrative functions at the central level (excluding a few cases where extensive decentralization has taken place) are those dealing with:

- financial affairs, personnel and logistics;
- specific levels and types of education: primary, secondary, technical/vocational, teacher education, university, adult and non-formal education;
- school construction, materials, and equipments;
- central examination, awards and fellowships;
- external relations;
- curriculum planning and development, school broadcasting, and books production and dissemination; and
- inspection and supervision.

Decentralization and Participation

108. A *down-to-earth* approach to educational development in Africa has been a long-standing desire. However, this can only be achieved with an appropriate structure permitting effective practice of educational administration to take place. This requires not only enough resources (personnel, financial, and material) but also a strong commitment by all partners to decentralized educational policy-making and educational implementation. In organizational and structural terms, much progress has been made along these lines through the creation of regional and sub-regional systems of educational administration. In operational terms, a great deal of improvement is expected as revealed in the discussion above. For example, not so much has been done in these countries for "front-line implementors" (headteachers, principals and teachers). Seldom attention is paid to their day-to-day educational management functions and constraints. There are but some few cases where training programmes are made available to this category of

administrative personnel. Altogether, there appears to be few possibilities available for motivating educational managers.

109. Decentralization and greater participation in educational administration can contribute to more democratic decision-making processes. Better opportunities for the underprivileged and marginal groups to voice their educational needs, priorities and expectations can be provided, which in turn can contribute to a further reduction of educational inequalities. In a situation of economic austerity--which the majority of the African countries are at present exposed to --decentralization and participation can address one of the prevalent limitations by creating opportunities to identify and mobilize local resources. Similarly, education can be made more relevant and more efficient through better contacts with local needs, expectations, and realities. In this context, the achievements made in Ethiopia through an appropriate system of administration and management to ensure smooth planning and implementation of educational reforms *(see also Block I)*, in Zambia through the self-help action plan for education *(SHAPE)* and multigrade schools, and in Botswana and Zimbabwe through the works of the Brigades, are cases in point. These benefits are often ascertained by donor agencies themselves. For example, in the recent World Bank Policy Study (1988:82), it is argued that greater decentralization corresponds to the characteristics of African countries, namely the long distances between individual schools and the center, great ethnic and linguistic diversity; and relatively poorly development systems of communications.

110. Evidence from some comparative studies on decentralization and participation in educational planning and administration confirms to a certain extent these findings, yet, also provide some room for further consideration (see for example, Coombs and Ahmed, 1974; McGinn and Schiefelbein, 1980; Chinapah, 1989).

111. The success of decentralization and participation in education depends on the extent to which the decision-making processes are adapted to them, for example, in terms of the involvement of implementation agents of educational programmes and projects in these processes. In some instances, decentralization and participation are simply a transfer of existing organizational administrative structures together with their conventional practices, norms and values to local levels. At the same time, very little is done to improve administrative and managerial competence at regional and sub-regional levels.

112. Effective decentralization and participation in educational administration in Africa can only be ensured by a proper definition of roles and functions of the various regional and sub-regional administrative bodies. Equally decisive are the quality of administrative and management competence available, the nature and quality of the information-base, and the political and professional climate at all levels of educational administration. These are important preconditions for successful educational reform programmes in African countries. For example, without a reinforcing political and professional environment allowing genuine participation in decision-making, openness to conflicting approaches and views,

tolerance and commitment to experimentation and innovation, and effective networking of information and communication exchange, even well-designed educational reforms from the top would have limited possibilities of success. Therefore, effective decentralization in Africa calls for well-defined roles, functions and boundaries of various units and divisions at various levels of educational planning and administration as well as an effective mechanism for the flow of information *downstream* and *upstream*, vertically and horizontally. Such a mechanism can spare time, resources and personnel from the central units and division to strengthen their roles and functions in policy formulation and analysis, quality control and dissemination.

Educational Management

113. The principal agents of educational reforms and changes in a country are those mandated to implement them while at the decentralized levels, these agents often have the functions of actors and potential beneficiaries. However, seldom are their concerns, needs and interests the subjects of scrutiny or critical appreciation. They are very often left out of the discussion from circles of educational policy-making and administration. These agents being the front-line implementors at the levels of different educational institutions (schools, colleges, educational centres and universities) play a decisive role in the actual realization of educational policies, programs and projects that are administered either in a centralized or decentralized manner. In this context, we can heed one of the recommendations from the recent World Bank Policy Study (1988:89) which clearly indicates the problems of, and prospects for, educational management in Africa.

> *A policy framework to make the use of education resources more efficient is generally designed at the national level, but successful implementation of policies will usually depend, in the final analysis, on the strength of managerial capacity throughout the education system, and especially in the individual schools. Among the essential ingredients of this managerial capacity are school leaders who possess analytical skills, the freedom to act on behalf of their school clients, and the relevant information on which to base their decisions. Accordingly, the top priorities for education management should be, in most African countries: (a) the improvement of programs for selecting, training, and supervising school headteachers and principals, combined with greater institutional autonomy; and (b) the development and implementation of achievement testing systems that provide feedback on institutional performance to individual schools, their supervisors, and the communities they serve.*

114. Educational management in African countries suffers a great deal from a scarcity of qualified and motivated personnel due to inadequate training facilities and insufficient reward structure of incentives. However, it is also important to mention how a center-periphery pattern persists in terms of resources available (human, financial and material). For instance, in terms of human resources, the best educated and most committed educational managers are often encouraged to leave local-level administration in order to serve in central-level administration through promotion practices. There is evidence from countries in the region (e.g. Botswana, Ethiopia, Senegal, Zambia and Zimbabwe) that disparities in skills and

BLOCK I

Planning and Implementation of Educational Reforms

Soon after the revolution in 1974, Ethiopia launched a massive reform in the country and where, education reforms serve a determinant role at levels of planning and implementation. By not being a one-shot exercise, Ethiopia planned its educational reform by first succeeding in mobilizing the people for it, and then moving ahead with basic structural, organizational and operational reform changes. The general reform in the country facilitated the taking over of the private school system by grass-root organizations such as the Urban Dwellers' Associations (Kebeles) which have as counterparts at the rural local community level (Weredas) known as Peasant Associations. The education reform movement was inspired by the central level authorities in limiting themselves to the overall organizational machinery for change retaining thus policy, planning and monitoring functions while ensuring supervision over implementation the reform through deconcentration and decentralization of educational functions to regional, provincial (awraja) and local levels (school management committees). This organizational structure has brought educational administration nearer to the communities. At each of these levels, there are parallel offices for the literacy and development campaigns. Continuous actions were taken to build up the planning, administrative and managerial capacities at these levels. After one decade in 1984, the Ministry of Education summarized in these lines its experience in planning and implementing educational reforms in the country.

> A drastic reform of the education system became necessary. Some of the reforms undertaken by the Ministry were the setting up of educational goals, the bringing of schools under the control of the people and re-organization and decentralization of the administrative structure. Awraja Pedagogical Centres (APCs) were thus created to serve as supporting arms in the implementation of the decentralized scheme, primarily for the purpose of facilitating the operation of the teaching-learning process.

The setting up of the Educational Material Production and Distribution Agency (EMPDA) in 1975 for the entire process of procurement, production of materials and distribution of supplies to schools and other institutions was to cross-fertilize the works of the National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC) set up to design, develop and finalize new curriculum materials. Operationalization was ensured through the creation of Awraja Pedagogical Centres (APCs) in 1977 all around the country serving the 106 Awraja education offices in curriculum implementation and application to the environment of the Awraja. The APCs are centres of change and innovation carrying out various functions (e.g. in-service training of educational personnel, mapping and usage of human and material community services and facilities, development and dissemination of innovative appropriate technology, instructional aids' prototypes, and adaption of national curriculum to local needs). Most schools in the country have developed their own School Pedagogical Centres (SPCs) with the help of the APCs and their trainees. The Curriculum Department of the Ministry of Education is responsible for the curriculum and instructional materials work of the APCs through the regional APCs officers while the APCs' coordinators monitor the works of teachers at the SPCs. The Department of Educational Mass Media has also a similar organizational networks for its mass media officers and teachers. The APCs and SPCs centres are there to help teachers and headmasters and to promote practical activities which will support the purposes of the new curriculum. The new draft curriculum has been issued to schools as a guide to programme implementation and a process of controlled implementation and evaluation was initiated in 1980 in 70 pilot schools. Included is the preparation and publication of student texts and workbooks, teacher guides and supplementary material. The educational inspectorates at central, regional and awraja levels serve as the watch-dog of the system in ensuring that implementation is in line with centrally -defined policies.

The educational reform experience in Ethiopia was characterized in the country's First Ten Year Perspective Plan of 1984-1994 as a successful movement towards a universal learning society. More specifically, this means the following:

- The eradication of illiteracy and the encouragement of the use of literacy skills in a variety of post-literacy programmes.
- The rapid growth of a system of general polytechnical education reaching a significant proportion of primary school age-group by 1994.
- The demonstration of access to education above grade 6 (i.e. education to grade 10 level in each Wereda and to grade 12 level in each Awraja).
- The equitable distribution of access to technical/ vocational education (i.e. facilities in each Administrative Region).
- Enrolment in each level and type of education sufficient to meet the demands for specific manpower training.

competence are reinforced by socio-economic, cultural, and gender differences between the personnel serving central-level educational planning and administration units and those at sub-national and local levels.

115. Returns to efforts and investments in educational management are many. In the present situation of economic austerity in Africa, one cannot overlook these returns. Educational managers are among the most appropriate agents to ensure implementation of any cost-recovery strategies in education, i.e. strategies designed for optimal use of existing as well as untapped resources. They are equally the motor behind quality improvement in education which demands appropriate leadership style, entrepreneurship and commitment.

116. Most African systems of educational management are challenged by pressures from educational reforms and changes initiated at the central-level of decision-making or by current innovations or experimentations which they are not prepared to easily accommodate. As the World Bank Policy Study (1988:81) indicates, these challenges do not reflect a problem of appropriate policy changes but rather poor management capacities mirrored by (a) a low investment in this area; (b) fragmentation of efforts by governments and donor agencies that inhibits sustained institutional development; (c) multiple and sometimes conflicting donor policies and procedures, which often consume a disproportionate share of management time and attention; and (d) difficulties in adapting modern forms of organization to the values and patterns of allegiance characteristic of many African cultures. However, some recent efforts are made to counter-balance these problems. For example, in the area of training, much attention should be given to the ongoing UNESCO/SIDA Funds-in-Trust Project for the training of trainers covering a number of English-Speaking and Portuguese-Speaking countries in the region. Linked with other activities of the COFORPA project, such training programmes aim, on a long-term basis, to train 200 instructors and 80 researchers who could ensure through a "multiplier-effect scheme", national training programmes in educational planning, administration and management for some 100,000 senior educational personnel in the region (Unesco, 1987:97).

SECTION V

Training in Educational Planning, Administration and Management

117. The linkage between educational policy-making and educational implementation depends very much upon a country's national capacities in educational planning, administration and management. This aspect has been emphasized more and more in the 1980s through successive international, regional, sub-regional, and national conferences, seminars, and workshops in Africa. Planning, administering and managing continuously changing and expanding systems of formal and non-formal education in Africa require not only a sufficient amount of human resources at national and sub-national levels of planning and administration, but also different categories of personnel possessing relevant skills and competencies to meet the quantitative and qualitative educational challenges. Unfortunately, most countries in the region do not possess an adequate stock of human resources to serve their expanding systems of educational planning and administration, and have not created a structure of a permanent nature to develop their national capacities for relevant pre-service and in-service training in the field of educational planning, administration and management. In the absence of such a permanent structure, there is hardly any possibility to pursue integrated training policies linking initial training with in-service training and/or "common core" training programs for the several categories of educational personnel. The lack of competent educational planners, administrators and managers has often been the major reason behind the mismanagement of the scarce resources available and the poor performance of the educational systems in these countries. In many countries, the local-level capacities in educational administration and management were found to be the weakest links in the systems. Likewise, unsuccessful implementation of new educational policies, reforms and innovations were caused by a general resistance to change from those not properly upgraded to meet the new challenges. In other words, there is still much to be desired in establishing and strengthening the existing national capacities for educational planning and administration in the region.

> *For this purpose, an estimate has to be made of the progress achieved, or the difficulties still being encountered, in managing these systems and more generally in planning and administration, or again the implementation of the strategies defined. This is a point that the Harare Conference considered from the angle of the necessary strengthening of services and machinery for planning, forecasting, mobilization and use of resources, and research into and application of lower-cost forms of education (Unesco, 1987:30).*

Development of National Capacities

118. Unesco in 1980 published a directory of governmental bodies and institutions dealing with educational planning and administration around the world. There were 31 countries in the region which

provided data on their national capacities for training and research in educational planning, administration and management. The results are reported in Table 10 below. These data are aggregated here to present some of the major trends in the 1970s. There was an insignificant number of countries (3 of 31) having comprehensive pre-service and in-service training programs and research incorporating planning, administration and management.

Table 10: National Capacity for Training and Research in Educational Planning, Administration and Management in 31 of the 44 African Member States in Sub-Saharan Region

	Training		Research
	Pre-Service	In-Service	
Planning, Administration & Management(a)	3	3	8
Planning & Administration (b)	6	7	10
Planning & Management (c)	3	3	15
Planning (d)	8	8	15
Administration & Management (e)	5	4	17
Administration (f)	15	18	15
Management (g)	9	8	10

Notes:

(a) Number of countries having integrated programmes for training and research in educational planning, administration and management.
(b) Number of countries having integrated programmes for training and research in educational planning and administrating (includes a).
(c) Number of countries having integrated programmes for training and research in educational planning and management (includes b).
(d) Number of countries having programmes for training and research in educational planning (includes a, b and c).
(e) Number of countries having integrated programmes for training and research in education administration (include a).
(f) Number of countries having programmes for training and research in administration (includes a, b, d, and e).
(g) Number of countries having programmes for training and research in management (includes a, c and e).

119. These data were further analyzed at an institutional level to map their international, regional, sub-regional, national and sub-national characteristics. In the 1970s there were altogether 76 institutions from 26 countries having training and research programmes in educational planning, administration and management. Among the 26 countries, 14 were French-speaking, 11 English-speaking, and 1 Portuguese speaking. Of these 76 institutions, 69 had a national status; 1 a sub-national status (Nigeria); 2 a sub-regional status (in Nigeria and Tanzania); 3 a regional status (in Ethiopia and Senegal); and 1 an international status (Zaire). There were more institutions offering programmes in educational administration than planning or management (also shown in the country analysis above). However, there were nearly twice as many institutions offering pre-service than in-service programmes. In research, there were as many programmes in planning as in administration, but far less in management. The results from the detailed analysis are given in Table 11.

Table 11:

African Institutions providing Training and Research in Educational Planning, Administration and Management of International, Regional, Sub-Regional, National and Sub-National Coverage.

SCOPE OF INSTITUTIONS IN 26 COUNTRIES(*)	NUMBER(**)	Pre-service Training:40				In-service Training:23				Research:57			
		P	A	M	Total	P	A	M	Total	P	A	M	Total
Sub-national	1 (***)	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	1	/	/	1
National	69	17	28	15	60	7	14	11	32	31	32	22	85
Sub-regional	2 (****)	/	/	/	/	/	/	1	1	1	1	1	3
Regional	3(*****)	/	/	/	/	2	1	/	3	2	2	1	5
International	1(******)	/	/	/	/	1	1	/	2	1	1	/	2
Total	76	17	28	15	60	10	16	12	38	36	36	24	96

(*) : 14 French-speaking countries
11 English-speaking countries
1 Portuguese-speaking countries

(**) : 29 French-speaking institutions
45 English-speaking institutions
2 Portuguese-speaking institutions

(***) : in Nigeria

(****) : English-speaking : Nigeria - Tanzania

(*****) : 1 English-speaking institution : Ethiopia
2 French- and English-speaking institutions : Senegal

(******) : French-speaking : Zaire

Source : Data from August 1980, UNESCO, Paris, Doc. 5.86

120. After the analysis of the data and documents available on the national capacities for training and research in educational planning, administration and management in the countries of the region, Chinapah (1988:13) made the following observations:

a) *Training and research programmes for educational planning, administration and management are limited in the region and have a fragmented and compartmentalized structure. This does not permit a comprehensive approach to the problems facing the educational systems of these countries. As a result, educational planners, administrators and managers have a different perspective to the understanding and treatment of common educational issues and problems.*

b) *There are great imbalances in the capacity for pre-service and in-service training and continuity between the two programmes is not ensured. As a result, the structural changes and innovations meant to improve existing educational systems hardly becomes a subject or a common platform for actions for the clientele of both programmes.*

c) *Research in educational planning, administration and management tends to follow a route of its own and ends-up in the academic (i.e. products from basic research works--dissertations, working papers, and articles). As a result, it has practically no effect on the changes and innovations anticipated in education in the region.*

d) *The national structures for capacity-building tends to separate training from research. As a result, the complementary functions which are required to ensure that research contributes to policy-making are neither perceived nor promoted. Research persists to be a theoretical and academic pursuit divorced from the practicalities and 'problematics' of day-to-day planning, administration and management.*

121. Strengthening existing institutions or creating new ones will not always succeed in confronting old problems or present needs and challenges of African systems of education without a genuine approach to educational planning and administration in Africa. Zambia has since 1984 attained these challenging needs through various modalities. The example from its Mobile Training Programmes is presented in *Block II*. This approach should be directed to the needs that can be met at regional and sub-regional levels, namely through training of trainers and researchers in these fields in order to ensure the "multiplier effects" at national levels. Without the latter scheme, the center-periphery situation will persist and the success of educational planning and administration in these countries will be doubtful.

BLOCK II

Local Capacity Development through Mobile Training Programmes

Building national and local capacities in educational planning, administration and management is a priority need for most countries in the region. Modalities for capacity-building are many. Since the early 1980s, Zambia embarked on various capacity-building programmes to strengthen the planning, administrative and management functions at its different national and sub-national levels (see Chinapah, 1987; Chidumayo et al, 1989). One of the most innovative and successful training modalities in this field is the Mobile Training Programmes (MTP) organized through the Planning Unit of the Ministry of General Education, Youth and Sport which started in 1984. MTP are designed to build a permanent structure for educational planning, administration and management in all the 55 districts of the country. A mobile training team of six senior educational officers toured the country to train planners, administrators and managers at district level. Since 1984, MTP were conducted in four rounds of one-week long seminar in every province of the country reaching some 300 district-level officers. The district-level team usually consist of 4-5 people with the District Education Officer (DEO) as the team leader assisted by other educational officers, e.g. inspector, headmaster, teacher, statistician, and building officer.

One of the principal objectives of MTP has been to assist the various districts in the country in the development of their own District Master Plan (DMP). The district-level team was exposed to very simple methods to diagnose the educational situation at district, school and grade levels and to later project short-term and long-term educational needs (enrolments, classes, classrooms, teachers, staff houses, school desks, maintenance facilities -- wallmaps, recourse atlases, handbooks, exercise books) as well as to suggest different implementation strategies, e.g. improvement in retention, reduction in dropouts and repeaters, increased access to groups of disadvantaged and handicapped children, resource mobilization, community participation in self-help projects, multigrade school programmes, and so on.

Every district in the country now has some kind of a plan for the nearest future, a plan which can be improved, step by step. When commenting upon the achievements made in developing District Master Plans, Lundstrom (1988:4-13) drew our attention to the following:

> The plan was in this manner meant to be revised yearly and new projections made for a three year period.. The purpose for the compilation of locally-based information was to make it easier for the educational leaders of the district to get an overview of the situation. With this overview it should be easier to study and analyze the situation in the area and to make conclusions and decisions on steps to be taken for the future development of education in the district... The plans we have received so far are all a bit different in terms of design, content and quality. No product is a complete or perfect planning document. All plans are also showing smaller or bigger mistakes and some are displaying misunderstandings of different kinds. What is most important is however, that the education leaders, all those who are responsible for the development at district levels, have begun to look into the future and to plan for the continued improvement of the education of the Zambian Child. It is believed that the District Master Plan, simple as it is could serve as a useful tool for the planners of today and that it eventually, step by step, could be improved taking into use more and more sophisticated methods as planning skills and techniques improve.

Meeting the Training Needs in the 1980s and New Challenges for the 1990s

122. In the 1980s, different modalities have been used for the training of educational planners, administrators and managers in the region. These modalities are a mix of international, regional and sub-regional programmes and activities geared towards the long-term objective of enhancing and strengthening national capacities in educational planning, administration and management in the various countries of the region. As it is not possible to cover all of them here, only the most important and relevant ones are mentioned. A host of programmes have been made available for countries in the region to enhance their national capacities in this field (e.g. BREDA-supported COFORPA Project from 1983 up to present and which covers by now some 34 countries in the region, and CONFEMEN for the French-Speaking countries; the IIEP annual advanced training programmes with a continuous increase of trainees from the region (some 150 between 1980-1989), as well as the Institute's intensive courses, workshops and other training activities at sub-regional and national levels; and other sponsored bilateral and international programmes, namely the UNESCO-SIDA Funds in Trust programmes in English and Portuguese-speaking countries). Often, these training programmes come into being after a detailed analysis of the training needs of countries in region through national inventories, consultations and the like. For example, at the COFORPA meeting in 1984, it was found that countries in the region would require training of different categories of planning, administrative and managerial personnel in the following areas:

1) high-level technicians, trainers and officials of Ministries of Education in educational planning and administration;
2) middle-level officials in educational management (Inspectors, Principals of TTCs, Headmasters, etc.);
3) middle-level officials in Educational Planning and trainers in TTCs, directed to statistics, school mapping and micro-planning, school building and project management and monitoring; and
4) those responsible for financial management at an institutional level.

123. Since 1984, most of the efforts of the COFORPA project have been geared to these needs, as well as others identified during the course of implementation, through additional national inventories, regional, national and sub-regional workshops and consultations. For example, through its various modalities, the COFORPA project was able to build-up an inventory of the national capacity for planning, administration and management among the participating countries in the project. In Table 12 below, data are provided from 24 of the 34 countries in the region. These data can be compared with those in Table 8. Most of these countries, as is clearly indicated are experiencing widening gaps between the existing national capacities by categories of personnel and the identified training needs.

124. The latest consultation of the COFORPA project in 1988 for planning its second phase considered an assessment of the various

activities during its first phase (see Annex V). At that consultation, the different modalities and activities pursued to attain the objectives of the project were reviewed and a new assessment of needs in training and research in educational planning, administration and management was carried out (see BREDA-COFORPA Phase II report, 1988). A synoptic presentation of the objectives, outputs and activities proposed for COFORPA Phase II is given in Annex VI. For example, for the training of trainers in educational planning and administration, the following needs are to be met:

a) 90 trainers in educational planning able to prepare, conduct and evaluate in-service training programmes in educational planning, and especially, in the fields of educational statistics and micro-planning;
b) 180 "National Nucleus Training" in educational administration able to prepare, conduct and evaluate in-service training programmes in educational administration; and
c) 1300 "Part-Time" trainers in educational administration able to assist in the preparation of in-service training programmes in educational administration.

Table 12: Country-Profile of National Capacity for Planning, Administration and Management of COFORPA Member Countries (24 of 34 Countries)

	Nat. high-level cadres	Nat. middle-level cadres	Project exec. pers.	Expatriate	Service personnel	General Services &auxiliary staff	Support staff	Total
BENIN 1984 (b)	47	20		9	10			86
BURKINA FASO 1985	-13-							13
BURUNDI 1984	8	3	4	1				16
CAP-VERD 1984	1	3			4			8
ETHIOPIA 1984 (c)	31	3					7	41
GABON 1984	5	3		3	3			14
GAMBIA 1984	2					4		6
GUINEA-BISSAU 1984	3	3		2	7			15
KENYA 1984	3	6					6	15
NIGER 1985	9	2		1				12
RCA 1984	2	4		1	8			15
RWANDA 1984	-13-							13
SENEGAL 1984	16	13		2	8			39
SIERRA LEONE 1985	3	4		1		2		10
TANZANIA 1985	(d)	76						76
TOGO 1985	(e)	51						51
ANGOLA	(b	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	
COMOROS	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	
CONGO	18 (c)	30 (c)			16(c)			64
GUINEA	19	11			3			33
MALI	14	11		1				26
MAURITANIA	78	151		5	206			440
CHAD	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	
ZAIRE	32 (d)	257 (d)					219(d)	508

Notes:
(a) number of personnel in the "planning units" at central level
(b) no indication
(c) 2 departments: Department of Planning and Co-operation and Department of Studies and Planning
(d) Department of primary and secondary education

125. In addition, it was decided that methodological guides in educational planning and educational administration should be prepared for each three linguistic groups (English-speaking, French-speaking, and Portuguese-speaking) together with "generic" training materials on educational statistics and micro-planning in the case of educational planning as well handbooks of training, and national training materials.

SECTION VI

Collaborative Efforts in Training and Research in Educational Planning, Administration and Management

126. Unesco, through its regional office in Dakar (BREDA) plays the most significant role in establishing, promoting and maintaining regional and sub-regional cooperation in educational planning, administration and management. Collaborative efforts are heavily dependent upon external funding, for instance, the COFORPA project and the establishment of regional centers such as IEPA (Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, University of Cape Coast--Ghana for West Africa) or KESI (Kenya Education Staff Institute). The organization and functions of KESI are presented in ***Block III***. As a whole, structures for promoting regional or sub-regional cooperation (with the exception of those established and maintained through Unesco) in training, research, development of teaching materials in the field of educational planning and administration in Africa are very limited in scope and coverage, if they exist at all.

127. Collaborative efforts at regional and sub-regional levels in educational planning and administration, besides those from Unesco-BREDA, are strengthened through the works of the IIEP and through support from several regional bodies and donor agencies (ECA, UNDP, The World Bank, SIDA, OPEC, etc.). Besides training in educational planning and training of trainers programmes in educational administration and management, the COFORPA project has been, and remains, the most instrumental and effective mechanism in establishing different types of networking activities in the region. The summaries of national experiences in educational planning and administration in COFORPA-Liaison serve as a powerful information base in this field for countries in the region. To encourage information exchange and to update collection, analysis and dissemination of educational and educationally related statistics, the Unesco-BREDA office has a computerized data bank (BREDA-STAT) and publishes regional bulletins. Chinapah (1988:3-5) provided a summary of the major achievements in the region in the light of the collaborative efforts in training, research, development of materials, etc., ensured during the first phase of the COFORPA project (1983-1988). Some of these are listed below. These observations served as feedbacks for the planning of the second phase of COFORPA, the content of which indicates the challenges in this field for the 1990s.

128. ***At Regional Level***. Coordination and execution of the COFORPA project by the Technical Secretariat of Unesco-BREDA:

a) ensure the participation of Member States of the Region (34 of the 44 Member States; those not yet participating are Botswana, Cameroon, Equatorial Guinea, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Mauritius, Nigeria, Uganda, and Somalia);
b) mobilize resources from different funding agencies (UNDP, SIDA, UNESCO, OPEC);
c) establish operational structures for the implementation of the project at sub-regional and national levels (sub-regional offices

and national coordinating bodies);
d) cement the coordination for and exchange of the various activities through meetings, workshops, and missions;
e) ensure the documentation and dissemination of experiences (COFORPA-Liaison, BREDA-STAT, etc.);
f) implement the programmes at regional, sub-regional and national levels for training and research in planning, administration and management (research has been the "Cinderella" of the first phase);
g) provide the necessary consultative services for the smooth running of the project; and
h) monitor the project activities through progress reports and final reports to the Director of the Regional Office and to related funding agencies.

129. **At Sub-Regional Level.** Coordination and execution of the various activities envisaged at the sub-regional level for the training of trainers, the development of training and teaching materials, and the mobilization of available resource persons in the sub-region for such activities:

a) set-up an organizational structure for coordinating training programmes in the sub-region (Nairobi, Dakar);
b) ensure the participation of Member States in the sub-region (9 of 12 English-speaking countries, 5 of 5 for Portuguese-speaking countries, and 16 of 16 French-speaking countries);
c) make optimal use of national capacities for training at sub-regional, inter-country, and national levels (8 trainers and 9 national coordinators);
d) develop training and teaching materials for the residential courses with the assistance of expertise from the project team, the Technical Secretariat at BREDA, and others (consultants) and finalize them in the form of handbooks;
e) ensure the creation of national centers and national teams for the coordination and execution of national training programmes and the preparation of training and teaching materials or modules; and
f) submit progress reports to the Technical Secretariat at BREDA.

130. ***At National Level.*** Coordination and implementation of national training programmes:

a) form national teams for the execution of national training programmes;
b) establish a permanent structure for in-service training of national cadres;
c) ensure optimal participation of national cadres in the programmes;
d) develop teaching and training manuals for such programmes; and
e) submit progress reports to the project coordinators at sub-regional and regional levels.

BLOCK III

KENYA EDUCATION STAFF INSTITUTE (KESI)

The Kenya Education Staff Institute has been established with funding from the World Bank. It was launched by the Minister for the then Higher Education, Honourable J.J. Kamotho M. P. on 10th August, 1981 at Kenyatta University College where the first course was held.

Essentially, the Kenya Education Staff Institute is a management centre the primary function of which is to facilitate the improvement and enrichment of the management and administrative skills (and knowledge sometimes) of educational administrators in the offices, educational institutions or schools through in-service training programmes.

KESI is headed by an Assistant Director of Education who is assisted by a team of five (5) Senior Education Officers. Besides the team of Senior Education Officers, the Principal of KESI has recruited a team of over forty (40) Assistant Course Tutors drawn from the cadres of: Senior Headmasters, Principals of Teacher Training Colleges, Senior Inspectors of Schools, Senior Education Officers, and Resource Personnel from various Institutions and from the University of Nairobi. It is the responsibility of the Institute in consultation with the relevant departments in the Ministry to identify training needs, prepare instructional materials and programmes, administer in-service courses, prepare annual financial estimates for its operation, and assist in the projection and analysis of training needs.

The content and the instruction/training methods for the courses are generally slightly varied and structured to suit the needs of the particular target group. But by far and large all KESI courses are designed to deal with the following areas:

MANAGEMENT SKILLS

. Financial control; estimates, budgets; book-keeping; stores planning; leadership styles etc.
. Office management; Communication; Delegation; Motivation; Decision-making; and Public relations.

PROFESSIONAL ASPECTS

. Curriculum (supervision and implementation)
. Guidance and Counselling
. Examinations and Discipline.

INSTITUTION ADMINISTRATION

. Legal provisions governing education and the board of Government Institutions
. The role of parents associations and the community in schools
. The Teachers Service Commission and its functions
. Industrial Relations (National Union of Teachers and Domestic and Hotel Workers Union)
. The role of Provincial administration in the promotion of Educational development in the country.

The following teaching and evaluation methods have been found suitable for its programmes: lecture/discussion; in-tray exercises; case studies; films (where applicable); role play; demonstration; and simulation exercises. As the emphasis is on group work (in order to draw on the vast and rich experience of the target groups), the lecture method and ((fat)) hand-outs are avoided as much as possible, except perhaps for the guest speakers. Moreover, the emphasis on group work makes it possible to maximize the interaction and full participation of all the participants. The groups are normally of 10-15 officers, excluding a KESI tutor.

At the end of every course, the Director of KESI issues certificates to reward satisfactory attendance. A questionnaire is administered in order to find out and assess: a) the usefulness and relevance of the course; b) shortcomings on administration, course content, presentation, venue and course duration/timetable; and c) suggestions from participants to KESI and the Ministry of Education in general.

Since the Institute started operating in August 1981, some 3700 people have been successfully trained in a series of two week courses on the following subject matters, management skills, professional aspects and institutional administration. A staff development programme is organized for KESI personnel through participation in a series of courses abroad.

131. Unesco-IIEP programmes in educational planning and administration in Africa are many. A great majority of them have international coverage (annual advanced training programmes) or short specialized training, workshops and seminars having regional, sub-regional or national coverage (e.g. training in school mapping, micro-planning and school zoning, administration of literacy programmes, school buildings and furniture, training of trainers in educational planning and administration, evaluation and monitoring of educational reforms, and educational costing). The major research-related activities in the region in the field of educational planning and administration are dominated by the research endeavors of the IIEP. In order to face the new challenges of the 1990s, increasingly surmounting efforts are needed to fill the gap at the national/central level and to breach those between the national/central and sub-national levels (regional and district levels) in educational planning, administration and management. Some of the needs expressed in quantitative terms were presented above.

132. For the present, and in the 1990s, a much greater emphasis should be given in the region to training of planning, administrative and managerial personnel at regional, district and local levels. This is evidenced through the needs identification and assessments carried out recently in the region. The problems of overall administration, coordination, monitoring and development of educational activities at the sub-national levels within the context of national educational policies should be the general focus for training (IIEP, 1987:41-43). In more specific terms, such training skills for educational planning and administration would have to include:

a) *Knowledge of the socio-economic conditions of the country and of national educational policies, priorities and plans.*
b) *Fundamental statistical skills and techniques needed for the collection and analysis of data, the description of local educational provision, the assessment of needs and the making of projections.*
c) *Ability to manage and control finances and to prepare estimates.*
d) *Ability to manage educational facilities and stores.*
e) *Skills in planning, managing and executing projects.*
f) *Ability to communicate effectively on educational issues, to provide leadership and to promote community involvement in educational undertakings.*
g) *Skills in personnel management.*
h) *Ability to administer public examinations efficiently, with special care for the preservation of security.*
i) *Ability to identify in-service training needs and to organize suitable programmes.*

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ANNEXES I--VI

Trends in total population by country (1960-2000)

COUNTRY	Total Population (in thousands)			Annual average growth rate (%)	
	1960	1980	2000	1960-1980	1980-2000
Angola	4 816	7 723	13 234	2.4	2.7
Benin	2 252	3 493	6 532	2.2	3.2
Botswana	480	915	1 917	3.3	3.8
Burkina	4 281	6 159	10 538	1.8	2.7
Burundi	2 927	4 100	7 226	1.7	2.9
Cameroon	5 482	8 623	15 158	2.3	2.9
Cape Verde	200	296	470	2.0	2.3
Comoros	214	381	695	2.9	3.0
Congo	971	1 528	2 643	2.3	2.8
Côte d'Ivoire	3 731	8 172	16 005	4.0	3.4
Ethiopia	24 190	38 521	66 509	2.4	2.8
Gabon	866	1 064	1 603	1.0	2.1
Gambia	375	583	898	2.2	2.2
Ghana	6 772	11 560	22 607	2.7	3.4
Guinea	3 660	5 407	8 879	2.0	2.5
Guinea-Bissau	538	808	1 229	2.1	2.1
Equatorial Guinea	250	352	559	1.7	2.3
Kenya	7 902	16 766	38 534	3.8	4.2
Lesotho	870	1 339	2 255	2.2	2.6
Liberia	1 047	1 871	3 615	2.9	3.3
Madagascar	5 363	8 704	15 550	2.5	2.9
Malawi	3 528	5 950	11 387	2.6	3.3
Mali	4 636	7 023	12 657	2.1	3.0
Mauritius	661	955	1 298	1.9	1.5
Mauritania	982	1 631	2 998	2.6	3.1
Mozambique	6 547	12 123	21 103	3.1	2.8
Namibie	822	1 349	2 415	2.5	3.0
Niger	3 233	5 311	9 750	2.5	3.1
Nigeria	42 305	80 555	161 930	3.3	3.6
Uganda	6 561	13 106	26 262	3.5	3.5
Central African Rep.	1 606	2 298	3 750	1.8	2.5
U. Rep. of Tanzania	10 026	18 867	39 129	3.2	3.7
Rwanda	2 753	5 144	10 123	3.2	3.4
Sao Tome and Principe	-	-	-	-	-
Senegal	3 042	5 671	9 765	3.2	2.8
Seychelles	-	-	-	-	-
Sierra Leone	2 476	3 296	4 867	1.4	2.0
Somalia	2 143	4 020	6 671	3.2	2.6
Swaziland	333	559	1 048	2.6	3.2
Chad	3 065	4 477	7 308	1.9	2.5
Togo	1 512	2 554	4 708	2.7	3.1
Zaire	15 907	25 847	47 581	2.5	3.1
Zambia	3 141	5 648	11 237	3.0	3.5
Zimbabwe	3 605	7 368	15 130	3.6	3.7
TOTAL (1)	196 071	342 117	647 783	2.8	3.2

(1) The total covers the 42 countries for which it was possible to establish the projections in the above table.

Source : Unesco Office of Statistics, extract from Data Bank (26 June 1987).

Enrollment Levels, Ratios, and Growth Rates, Selected Years, 1960-1983

	1960	1970	1975	1980	1983
Primary education					
Number of students	11,853	20,971	30,117	47,068	51,345
Index (1960=100)	100	177	254	397	433
Average annual growth rate					
from 1960 to:	.	5.9	6.4	7.1	6.6
from 1970 to:	.	.	7.5	8.4	7.1
from 1975 to:	.	.	.	9.3	6.9
from 1980 to:	.	.	.	.	2.9
Gross enrollment ratio	36	48	58	76	75
Secondary education					
Number of students	793	2,597	4,284	8,146	11,119
Index (1960=100)	100	327	540	1,027	1,402
Average annual growth rate					
from 1960 to:	.	12.6	11.9	12.4	12.2
from 1970 to:	.	.	10.5	12.1	11.8
from 1975 to:	.	.	.	13.7	12.7
from 1980 to:	.	.	.	.	10.9
Gross enrollment ratio	3	7	10	16	20
Tertiary education					
Number of students	21	116	216	337	437
Index (1960=100)	100	552	1.029	1.605	2.081
Average annual growth rate					
from 1960 to:	.	18.6	16.8	14.9	14.1
from 1970 to:	.	.	13.3	11.3	10.8
from 1975 to:	.	.	.	9.3	9.2
from 1980 to:	.	.	.	.	9.1
Gross enrollment ratio	0.2	0.6	0.8	1.2	1.4
All levels					
Number of students	12,667	23,684	34,617	55,551	62,901
Index (1960=100)	100	187	273	439	497
Average annual growth rate					
from 1960 to:	.	6.5	6.9	7.7	7.2
from 1970 to:	.	.	7.9	8.9	7.8
from 1975 to:	.	.	.	9.9	7.8
from 1980 to:	.	.	.	.	4.2

Note: Numbers of students [illegible] thousands.
Source: World Bank [illegible] Buenos Aires 1988 p.166

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Changes in Primary Enrolment 1960-1983

		Total (thousands)				Average annual growth rate (%)		Females as a percentage of total		
		1960	1970	1980	1983 a/	1960-80	1980-83	1960	1970	1983 a/
Low-Income economies	t	6796	13185	25803	28064	w 6.9	2.8	31	38	43
						s 6.6	3.1	30	36	40
Low-Income semi-arid	t	250	648	1276	1389	w 8.5	2.9	24	32	35
						s 8.7	3.9	29	33	36
1 Mali		65	204	291	293	7.8	0.2	28	36	37
2 Burkina Faso		57	105	202	277	6.6	11.1	29	37	37
3 Niger		27	89	229	250	11.4	3.0	30	33	36
4 Gambia, The		7	17	43	61	9.6	11.8	31	31	38
5 Somalia		23	50	272	221	13.2	-6.7	25	24	36
6 Chad		72	183	239	289	6.2	4.8	11	25	27
Low-Income other	t	6546	12537	24527	26674	w 6.8	2.8	32	39	44
						s 6.1	3.1	31	37	41
7 Ethiopia		224	655	2131	2497	11.9	5.4	24	31	38
8 Zaire		1550	3088	4207	4655	5.1	3.4	27	37	43
9 Malawi		285	363	810	847	5.4	1.5	36	37	42
10 Guinea-Bissau		18	28	75	75	7.4	0.2	30	30	33
11 Tanzania		455	856	3368	3553	10.5	1.8	34	40	49
12 Burundi		92	182	176	301	3.3	19.6	24	33	40
13 Uganda		593	1110	1521	1617+	4.8	3.1	32	40	43+
14 Togo		103	229	506	457	8.3	-3.3	28	31	39
15 Central African Rep.		68	176	246	291	6.7	5.8	19	33	35
16 Madagascar		450	938	1311	1487+	5.5	4.3	44	46	48+
17 Benin		89	153	380	428+	7.5	6.2	28	31	33+
18 Rwanda		264	419	705	762	5.0	2.6	31	44	48
19 Kenya		781	1428	3927	4324	8.4	3.3	32	41	48
20 Sierra Leone		86	166	300	348	6.4	5.1	34	40	41
21 Guinea		97	191	258	284	5.0	2.5	26	32	32
22 Ghana		503	967	1417	1453	5.3	0.8	33	43	44
23 Sudan		344	826	1464	1599	7.5	3.0	27	38	41
24 Senegal		129	263	420	533	6.1	8.3	32	39	40
25 Mozambique		416	497	1307	1163	5.9	-3.8	38	34	43
Middle-Income Oil Importers	t	1400	2571	4252	3366	w 5.7	9.4	42	44	47
						s 6.6	5.0	45	45	48
26 Mauritania		11	32	91	107+	11.0	8.9	19	28	39+
27 Liberia		59	120	227	230	7.0	0.4	29	33	40
28 Zambia		288	695	1042	1194	6.6	4.6	40	45	47
29 Lesotho		136	183	245	278+	3.0	6.5	62	60	58+
30 Cote d'Ivore		239	503	1000	1160	7.4	5.1	26	36	41
31 Zimbabwe		484	736	1235	2131	4.8	14.6	45	45	48
32 Swaziland		34	69	112	130	6.1	5.0	50	49	50
33 Botswana		36	83	172	198	8.1	4.9	59	53	53
34 Mauritius		112	150	.129	139	0.7	2.5	47	49	49
Middle-Income Oil Exporters	t	3657	5215	17013	17715	w 8.0	1.4	36	38	46
						s 6.3	3.3	34	43	48
35 Nigeria		2913	3516	13788	14384	8.1	1.1	37	37	.
36 Cameroon		468	923	1379	1564	5.6	4.3	33	43	46
37 Congo, People's Rep.		116	241	391	423+	6.3	4.0	34	44	49+
38 Gabon		57	101	155	166+	5.1	3.3	38	48	49+
39 Angola		104	434	1301	1178+	13.5	-.48	33	36	46+
Sub-Saharan Africa	t	11853	20971	47068	51345	w 7.1	2.9	34	39	44
						s 6.6	3.4	32	37	42
Francophone countries	t	3953	8022	12185	13727	w 5.4	4.1	30	38	42
						s 6.2	4.3	28	36	40
Anglophone countries	t	7117	11285	29799	32484	w 7.4	2.9	37	40	46
						s 6.5	3.2	33	41	47
Other	t	784	1665	5085	5134	w 9.8	0.3	33	33	40
						s 11.9	-3.8	30	31	38

Note: For data comparability and coverage, see the technical notes.
Totals may not sum due to rounding.

a. Figures with an asterisk are for 1982; those with a cross are estimates. See the technical notes.
Figures for Chad, Guinea, Nigeria and Zimbabwe are for 1984.

Source: World Bank Education and Training Dept. 1986 (Report No, EDT-39)

Annex IV

Percentage of repeaters in primary education.
(Most recent figures available, usually 1982 or 1983)

Under 5 %	5 - 9.9 %	10 - 14.9 %	15 - 19.9 %	20 - 24.9 %	25-29.9 %	30 % and over
Seychelles 0,0	Botswana 5,9	Rwanda 11,9	Senegal 15,2	Sao Tome and Principe 20,9	Lesotho 24,5	Guinea Bissau 30,0
Zimbabwe 0,8	Uganda 0,3	Ethiopia 12,2	Burundi 15,5	Guinea 24,2	Cote d'Ivoire 25,8	Mali 31,0
Tanzania, United Rep. 1,2		Gambia 12,2	Malawi 15,8	Comores 24,6	Benin 25,9	Congo 33,2
Zambia 1,5		Swazi-land 12,6	Mauritania 17,2		Mozambique 28,6	Central African Republic 35,3
Ghana 2,0		Burkina Faso 14,1			Cameroon 28,9	Angola 36,0
Egypt 2,1		Niger 14,3			Cape Verde 29,5	Togo 36,6

Source: ED/BIE/CONFINTED 40/Ref.1 - p.50.

Annex V

APPRAISAL 1983-1988

OBJECTIVES	ACTIVITIES	OUTPUT
1. IDENTIFICATION NEEDS	1. ACTIONS (*)	1. RESULTS (*)
- Existing programmes - Training and Research needs	- Preparation of documents ---------->	- Documentation guidelines (3)
	- Official approval of participating States ---------->	- 34 participating Member States
	- Identification missions ---------->	- 30 countries visited
- Co-operation scheme and exchange	- Request for the preparation of national information documents ---------->	- 28 national information documents
2. CO-OPERATION AND EXCHANGE (*)	2. ACTIONS (*)	2. RESULTS (*)
- Between existing programmes - Of use for other countries (exchange)	- Study visits ---------->	- IIEP trainees (19) - BREDA with 11 representatives of Member States (May 1984)
	- Scholarships ---------->	- 2 specialists from Burkina Faso (1984) 1 specialist from Guinea (1984) 2 specialists from Cape-Verde (86) 2 specialists from Guinea-Bissau (3months at IDEP, 1985)
	- Information - Dissemination (Regional Bulletin)---------->	- COFORPA-LIAISON (3rd issue in process) (data on 24 nat. exper.)
3. NEW PROGRAMMES - Promote and create new programmes for other countries (*)	3. ACTIONS	3. RESULTS
	- Regional workshop for trainers (June 84)	- 11 representatives of Member States - Final Report - Project document COFORPA - Plan of Action
- Identification of new common needs (*)	- National Workshops (1984-1987 (**)	- + 500 participants - Reports - Training and teaching materials
- Co-ordination and organizational of national workshops (**)		

(*) at regional level
(**) at national level

(Cont.)

4. TRAINING OF TRAINERS AND RESEARCHERS

- Educational administration and Management
- Educational Planning and Administration
- Educational Planning (Francophones, OPEC)
- Education research

4. ACTIONS

- Establishing sub-regional centres (2)
- Project Planning Meeting (1986)
- Preparatory missions (9) E.
- Preparatory workshop (Jan. 87) E
- 1st residential course (1987)
- National training courses (1987)
- 2nd residential course (1988)
- Evaluation activities
- Preparation missions (5-1988) L
- 2 sub-regional meetings (1985, 1986) F
- Research workshop/Training (July-August 1986, Nairobi) - Joof's paper
- Questionnaire on planning (I/R)
- Questionnaire on administration - F

4.. RESULTS

- Dakar, ROSTA
- Programme contents
- 9 national teams + 8 trainers
- 29 participants
- Didactic materials
- Handbook
- 32 technical experts F (14 countries, Libreville
- 15 participants (7 count (Paris)
- Elaboration of did.mat
- Mission reports
- Training needs (Joof)
- Methodological guide (86
- Planning (1986)
- Case studies
- Methodological guide (88
- National training needs for 21 countries (86)

5. PROMOTE APPLIED RESEARCH (*)

- Identify research centres
- Appraisal of
- Co-ordinate research centres

5. ACTIONS (*)

- Consultations + workshops (BREDA)
- Workshop in Nairobi (1986)
- Meeting BREDA (1984)
-

(Mali, Senegal, Zaïre)

5. RESULTS (*)

- COFORPA- 21 N.D
- Final Report (84/86)
- Case study reports
- Research guidelines (88)
- Sub-regional centres

6. DIDACTIC MATERIALS (*)

- Documentation centre (BREDA)
- Training modules (handbooks)

6. ACTIONS

- Bulletin
- National training modules

6. RESULTS (*)

- Handbook in preparation
- National training mod (?
- Inventory of existing materials

(*) Regional (BREDA - COFORPA T/S)

Annex VI

: A Synoptic Presentation of Objectives, Outputs and Activities for COFORPA Phase II

OBJECTIVES	OUTPUTS	ACTIVITIES
General Objective Regional Technical Co-operation for the development of national capacities for training and research in educational planning and administration		
Specific Objective 1 Promoting regional technical co-operation for the development of capacities for training and research in educational planning and administration	. Increased exchange of information within the Region . Strengthened co-operation within the Region in the fields of educational planning and administration	. Publication and dissemination of COFORPA-LIAISON (bi-annually) . Preparation, publication and dissemination of a regional directory of educational planning units and of training programmes and research projects in educational planning and administration in Africa . Regional meeting of COFORPA national co-ordinators (one in 1989 and one in 1991) . Identification and mobilization of resources for the development of training and research capacities (regional, sub-regional and national projects) . Identification missions to new participating countries and the preparation of national information documents . Assistance to the establishment or reinforcement of documentation centres in the fields of training and research in educational planning and administration at regional, sub-regional and national levels . Setting-up of a computerized information system and a documentation centre common to the three components of the HRD Project

(Cont.)

OBJECTIVES	OUTPUTS	ACTIVITIES
Specific Objective 2 Training of trainers in educational planning and administration	. 90 trainers in educational planning able to prepare, conduct and evaluate in-service train ng programmes in educational planning, and especially, in the fields of educational statistics and micro-planning . 180 "National Nucleus Trainers" in educational administration able to prepare, conduct and evaluate in-service training programmes in educational administration . 1300 "Part-Time" trainers in educational administration able to assist in the preparation, conduct and evaluation of in-service training programmes in educational administration	. Those activities mentioned in 503/RAF/16 Phase II for English-speaking countries in educational administration . Those activities mentioned in 503/RAF/17 for Portuguese-speaking countries in educational planning and administration . Those activities foreseen in the CONFEMEN/COFORPA programme for training of trainers in educational administration . Activities to be organised within a project for training of trainers in educational planning for English-speaking countries in association with the IIEP and national institutions . Activities to be organised within a project for training of trainers in educational planning for French-speaking countries in association with the IIEP and national institutions
Specific Objective 3 Establishing and/or reinforcing national training programmes of a systematized nature in educational planning and administration	. National training programmes of a systematized nature tailored to the training needs in educational planning in participating countries . National training programmes of a systematized nature tailored to the training needs in educational administration in participating countries	. Consultative and advisory services . Study visits . Technical/financial support (as seed money) to national training workshops

OBJECTIVES	OUTPUTS	ACTIVITIES
Specific Objective 4 Development and production of training materials in educational planning and administration	. 3 methodological guides for the organisation of training programmes and for the development and production of training materials in educational planning (one for each linguistic group) . 3 methodological guides for the organisation of training programmes and for the development and production of training materials in educational administration (one for each linguistic group) . "Generic" training materials in educational planning and especially in educational statistics and micro-planning . "Generic" training materials in educational administration . Training materials produced at national level	. Regional workshop to review training materials prepared and tested . Preparation or finalization, testing, revision, publication and dissemination of methodological guides for the development and productior of training materials in educational planning . Preparation or finalization, testing, revision, publication, and dissemination of methodological guides for the development and production of training materials in educational administration . Technical/financial support to the development and production of training materials at national level
Specific Objective 5 Contribution to training programmes for research of relevance to educational planning and administration	. 90 practitioners of educational planning and/or administration entrusted with the responsibility for better conducting or contributing to the realization of studies and research of relevance to educational planning and administration, better able to carry out this responsibility . 90 "researchers" (from research institutions, university departments) entrusted with the responsibility for conducting or contributing to the realization of studies and research of relevance to educational planning and administration within the framework of a close co-operation between researchers and educational planners, better able to carry out this responsibility . Strengthened national and sub-regional training programmes (existing ones or those created during the course of the project) for research of relevance to educational planning and administration	. Sequence of activities organised at regional and sub-regional levels for the dual purpose of providing training (objective 5) and establishing a co-ordinated programme for the development of research (objective 6) and consisting of the following main activities: - First regional workshop on training programmes for research of relevance to educational planning and administration - 5 sub-regional workshops (2 for the English-speaking, 2 for the French-speaking and 1 for the Portuguese-speaking countries) on research of relevance to educational planning and administration - Second regional workshop to compare the experiences and evaluate the results . Technical/financial support to training-related research projects . Study visits, exchange of staff and attachments

(Cont.)

OBJECTIVES	OUTPUTS	ACTIVITIES
Specific Objective 6 . Establishment of a co-ordinated programme for the development of research in the fields of educational planning and administration	. Report on the co-ordinated programme for the development of research in the fields of educational planning and administration	. State of the Art Review (instrument construction, national contributions, analysis and synthesis . Sequence of activities mentioned in Objective 5 above . Reporting on co-ordinated programme . Setting-up of an advisory board
Specific Objective 7 Collection, publication and dissemination of research results in the fields of educational planning and administration	. Summaries of research results in COFORPA-LIAISON . Series of studies, research documents (10 issues) . Strengthened facilities for publishing and disseminating research results at national level	. Collection of existing documents or those produced during the course of the project . Publication of summaries in COFORPA-LIAISON . Dissemination of documents . Technical/financial support to the production and dissemination of research results by national institutions